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## CHARLES HORTON COOLEY, SOCIOLOGIST

1864-1929

CHARLES A. ELLWOOD

*University of Missouri*

A LIGHT is out in American sociology. Some of us think that it is the greatest light that has yet shone in our science. All would agree that the death of Charles Horton Cooley brings an irreparable loss to American sociology.

I have often called Professor Cooley the Darwin of sociology, not only because he laid so securely the foundations of our science, but because his voice, like Darwin's, seemed almost like the voice of nature. More justly perhaps he has been called the Emerson of sociology, because he brought to sociology something of Emerson's philosophic insight and literary charm. Personally I believe, however, that his influence upon the development of human thought will in the long run prove to be much greater than Emerson's. Yet such is the obscurity of a great thinker in our age that his name scarcely stands in any first class encyclopedia! Even the University of Michigan, I have understood, did not until recently realize that it was harboring in its midst one of the greatest thinkers that America has yet produced. Probably in part this was due to Professor Cooley's self-effacing modesty; but it is also in part due to the lack of social intelligence of our time.

Charles Horton Cooley was born in a distinguished and cultured family, and the education which he received with-

in the family circle must have had much to do with his subsequent development and possibly with the color of his thought. His father was Judge Thomas M. Cooley, who was from 1859 onward a professor of law in the University of Michigan and a dean of the University. Earlier Judge Cooley had been one of the judges of the state Supreme Court and in 1887 President Cleveland made him one of the first members of the Interstate Commerce Commission. Judge Cooley was the author of many volumes on legal and historical subjects and is generally regarded as one of the developers of constitutional law in this country. Into this cultured family Charles Horton Cooley was born August 17, 1864. As a child he had very delicate health and he suffered from severe physical handicaps during practically all of his life. He graduated from the University of Michigan in 1887, and then for a time went with his father to Washington to serve in the statistical work of the Interstate Commerce Commission and of the Census Bureau. He returned to the University of Michigan in 1892, became an assistant in Political Economy, and took his Ph.D. in 1894. In 1895 he was made an instructor in Sociology in the University of Michigan and held this rank until 1899 when he was made assistant professor of Sociology, finally receiving the title of full professor in 1904.

It will be noted that Professor Cooley was a student at the University of Michigan at the very time that Professor John Dewey was active there, first as assistant professor of Philosophy from 1884 to 1888, and then as professor of Philosophy from 1889 to 1894. How much Professor Cooley studied with Professor Dewey I cannot say. But there can scarcely be any doubt about Dewey's influence upon Cooley. Anyone who is familiar with the thought of both men can hardly fail to notice this. Indeed, Cooley's



sociological thought seems in many ways to have been built upon the philosophical perceptions of Dewey. Other great teachers at the University of Michigan undoubtedly also influenced Cooley, such as Henry Carter Adams. And it is fair to add that Cooley was, from an academic point of view, exclusively an University of Michigan product. The University of Michigan has every right to be proud that it produced such a son.

Professor Cooley will not be remembered by the quantity of his writing. His first sociological book, *Human Nature and the Social Order*, was published in 1902. This was followed in 1909 by what many regard as the acme of his sociological thought, *Social Organization: A Study of the Larger Mind*. Nine years elapsed before another book was brought forth, *Social Process*, in 1918. Finally in 1927 he ventured to publish a volume of notes and aphoristic sayings entitled *Life and the Student*, which in some ways is the most significant of all of his publications for the understanding of the man. One must not forget, however, his occasional articles and papers. Probably chief among these is his article on "The Roots of Social Knowledge" published in the *American Journal of Sociology* for July, 1926, and a presidential address before the Michigan Academy of Science, Arts, and Letters. This paper is a prolegomenon to every future treatise on sociological methodology, and should be required of every graduate student in America who aspires to a higher degree in sociology.

In *Human Nature and the Social Order* Professor Cooley laid securely the foundations for his sociology, though the book was more in the field of social psychology in the narrow sense than in the field of sociology. It was occupied with the problem of the relation of society and the individual, and with the genesis and significance of the social states of mind of the individual. But the founda-

tions of Cooley's sociology were also clearly outlined. He pointed out for example that it is the imaginations which people have of one another which are "the *solid facts* of society and that to observe and interpret these must be a chief aim of sociology." He made it clear that the *object* of sociological study is "primarily an imaginative idea or group of ideas in the mind, that we have to imagine imaginations." This was in effect stressing the importance of the mental side of social life and the close interdependence of psychology and sociology.

In *Social Organization* Cooley's sociological system became clear. He proposed to begin the study of social life with the life of the primary or face-to-face groups in which all human individuals receive their social attitudes, social values, and even their "human nature," as that phrase is commonly understood. Out of the patterns of these groups, he showed, have arisen the main patterns, or primary ideals, of human society. As the chief carriers of social tradition and social custom they are the chief moulders of personality and the carriers of the human element in our social life. The web of intercommunication in these groups is the mechanism through which human relations exist and develop, while the extension of intercommunication is the method of expansion of social relationships.

*Social Process* simply elaborated and developed these fundamental sociological concepts. In these three books Professor Cooley revolutionized the method of the social sciences, and especially of sociology, because he turned attention from the larger aspects of human relations to the small groups and to individual interactions. In emphasizing the significance of intercommunication for group behaviour, he indicated a method by which we might study the psychic life of groups even more accurately than the psychologist could study the individual mind through in-

trospection. For he showed the mechanism of intercommunication to be the essential structure for the understanding of the *human* developments of social life.

Cooley's greatest contribution to sociological methodology is, however, to be found in the paper on "The Roots of Social Knowledge" to which we have referred above. In this paper he shows definitely, and once for all, the great differences between the social and the physical sciences and the inadequacy of the method of the latter for the former; he also vindicates the right of the social sciences to be called sciences, even though their method is very different from that of the physical sciences. He points out that "the distinctive trait of spatial knowledge is that it is mensurative, that of social knowledge is, perhaps, that it is dramatic."<sup>1</sup> As the former depends upon distinctions among our sensations of material objects, "the latter is based ultimately upon perceptions of the intercommunicating behavior of men and the experience of the processes of mind that go with it."<sup>2</sup> Hence "human knowledge is both behavioristic and sympathetic."<sup>3</sup> There is, therefore, no standardized objective measure to which we can subject it. "Strictly speaking, there are no yardsticks in social knowledge, no elementary perceptions of distinctively social facts that are so alike in all men, and can be so precisely communicated, that they supply an unquestionable means of description and measurement."<sup>4</sup> Therefore, "the first step toward clear thinking about social or human knowledge as compared with material or spatial knowledge, is to recognize that the former rests eventually upon sympathetic understanding of the acts of men, and

<sup>1</sup> *Am. Journal of Sociol.*, July, 1926, p. 64.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 65.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 67.

can never be exact or mensurative in the sense that material knowledge can be."<sup>5</sup> Would-be social scientists who seek to dodge the mental and emotional processes in which society consists, to circumvent them, find them superfluous, arrive only at pseudo-science.<sup>6</sup> This method in the end will not work, Cooley tells us, for these phenomena are nature; if we are to have a social science, it must advance through them, not around them. "The study and measurement of behavior, the outside of life, is a fruitful and promising method, but the idea of a human science consisting wholly of such study, without sympathetic observation of the mind, is, I think, only mystification."<sup>7</sup> Yet Cooley does not object to a behavioristic method in the social sciences provided it realizes and acknowledges its limitations, as leaving out, after all, that which chiefly distinguishes human life from physical processes, namely, creative mental synthesis. In general, final interpretation must include sympathetic introspection, of which scientists should not be afraid, however much it has been abused by philosophers, since it is "a normal and common process without which we could know very little about life."<sup>8</sup>

Professor Cooley believed, however, that fundamental agreement upon meanings in sociology can be made more precise by the careful use of language and that thus the transmission and accumulation of social knowledge exact enough for practical purposes is possible. He says the human mind participates in social processes in a way that it does not in any other processes. It is itself a sample, a phase of those processes, and is capable under favorable circumstances, of so far identifying itself with the general

<sup>5</sup> *Life and the Student*, p. 150.

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 154.

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 151.

<sup>8</sup> *Amer. Journal of Sociol.*, July, 1926,, p. 69.

movement of a group as to achieve a remarkably just anticipation of what the group will do.<sup>9</sup> Thus he tells us that sociology is not only a science and a philosophy, but, looked at from the point of view of constructive imagination, it is also an art.<sup>10</sup> It needs liberation from outworn theological and metaphysical assumptions and the rise of a technical group of adequately trained scholars; but it also needs continued development of factual theory, springing from observation, and capable of being verified or refuted by the closer study of social facts and experience.

Will sociology follow this path of development marked out for it by one of its greatest pioneers? Only the future can tell us. But it seems to me certain that if sociology is going to fulfill the dreams of its founders it must develop in the direction which Cooley has marked out rather than in the sterile direction of following in social studies the misleading methods of the physical sciences. Next after Lester F. Ward, Charles Horton Cooley refounded sociology, breathed into it the breath of life, and made it a real instrument for the redemption of mankind.

<sup>9</sup> *Am. Journal of Sociology*, July, 1926, p. 78.

<sup>10</sup> *Life and the Student*, p. 160.



## A HOME RATING SCALE TO CHECK SOCIAL WORKERS' OPINIONS

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### I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

IN SOCIAL WORK, as in applied psychology, there is a trend towards discarding such indefinite categories of valuation as "poor," "fair," "good," and "excellent," and substituting objective measurements.

At no point in the practice of social work is such substitution more desirable or even practicable than in the selection of foster homes. If it were possible to devise an objective scale for measuring the adequacy of potential foster homes instead of relying on the so-called subjective opinions of social workers that this home was only "fair," another "good," and a third home "excellent," such a measuring device, if not an actual substitute for the judgments of experts would, at least, be a useful supplement to or a check upon such judgments.

It is the purpose of this article to offer an illustration of how such a scale may be constructed. No greater validity than utility is claimed for the scale presented herewith. In fact we offer this scale as a provisional device that will require much further experimentation before any considerable degree of validity may be claimed for it. If the subject arouses discussion and leads to further experimentation, the effort of the author will be amply repaid.

### II. THE METHOD OF RESEARCH USED

The assumption upon which this study is based is that the atmosphere and the stability characteristic of a desirable foster home are related to socio-economic status in

such a way that a home with high socio-economic status is an "excellent" prospective foster home, whereas a home with a low socio-economic status is a "poor" prospective foster home. The validity of this assumption is of course open to question. In the course of this article some tests of the validity of this assumption will be offered.

Since we have defined a desirable foster home in terms of socio-economic status, it is necessary to explain what we mean by the term socio-economic status. Elsewhere<sup>1</sup> we have defined socio-economic status as "the position that an individual or a family occupies with reference to the prevailing average standards of cultural possessions, effective income, material possessions, and participation in group activity of the community. In this definition we arbitrarily assume, for purposes of making a start in the study of this problem, that there are the four objectives and measurable elements in family life just enumerated."

In the study of social phenomena we may resort to any of the following methods in order to describe our cases or subjects in quantitative form:

1. Apply to the cases or subjects a quantitative scale devised or perfected in other investigations.
2. Construct a scale of ratings set by consensus of opinions of experts from whom independent judgments are procured.
3. Construct a scale by arbitrarily weighting the data.

In the study of the problem before us each of these three methods was used in an effort to measure the four elements assumed to constitute socio-economic status. The reader is referred to this study<sup>2</sup> for the statistical analysis followed in the construction of our home rating scale. Perhaps all that we need say here is that after intensive

<sup>1</sup> F. S. Chapin, "A Quantitative Scale for Rating the Home and Social Environment of Middle Class Families in an Urban Community," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 19, No. 2, Feb., 1928, pp. 99-111.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*

analysis of detailed case records (obtained by social workers) of 38 normal families having children in the University of Minnesota Institute of Child Welfare, we devised a simple rating scale for the living room of an urban home. Since the scores of the living rooms of the 38 homes were highly correlated with the complex aggregate scores of the same homes on the four separate scales designed to measure cultural possessions, effective income, parents' participation in the group activities of their community and neighborhood, and material possessions, we may dispense with the elaborate fourfold procedure and substitute the relatively simple living room score card. A copy of this card may be secured by a request sent to the writer, care of the Institute of Child Welfare, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. Examination will show the content and use of the score card.

Having devised a home rating scale, the next step is to test it out. The scale has been subjected to three independent tests as follows: In the first place, the 38 homes originally studied were independently rated on the Chapman-Sims scale<sup>3</sup> and results obtained that were highly consistent. In the second place, 18 of the original 38 homes were independently rated on the Holley<sup>4</sup> scale and the results obtained were found to be in substantial agreement on the two scales. Thus in two tests we find corroboration of our scale in a significant degree.

But the question may be asked, What after all is the practical significance to social work of such corroboration of a home rating scale? Would it not be much better to test the scale against the expert opinions of social workers

<sup>3</sup> J. S. Chapman and V. M. Sims, "Quantitative Measurement of Certain Aspects of the Socio-Economic Status," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 16, 1925, pp. 380-390; also, J. D. Heilman, "A Revision of the Chapman-Sims Socio-Economic Scale," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 18, No. 2, Sept., 1928, pp. 117-127.

<sup>4</sup> C. E. Holley, "Relationship between Persistence in School and Home Conditions," Reprint of *XV Yearbook*, Society for the Study of Education, Chicago, 1916.

TABLE I

CORRELATION OF SCORES AND SOCIAL WORKERS' OPINIONS

Total Score on Rating Scale	Opinions of Social Workers				Explanation
	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	
25	m-21, c-4				The total score of any given home is shown at the left.
28	m-26, c-2				
31		m-21, c-10			
31		m-23, c-8			
33		m-25, c-8			Its position on the horizontal scale is shown in the column heading.
39			m-28, c-11		
44			m-29, c-15		
45		*m-30, c-15			
49			m-35, c-14		m=material equipment score
49		*m-27, c-22			
54			m-31, c-23		
59			m-37, c-22		
59			m-37, c-22		c=cultural equipment score
60		*m-36, c-24			
62			m-41, c-21		
73			m-41, c-32		
75			m-43, c-32		
75				*m-42, c-33	
79				m-54, c-25	
80				m-53, c-27	
84				m-57, c-27	
85				m-52, c-33	
88			*m-53, c-33		
98				m-65, c-33	
98			*m-61, c-36		
99				m-62, c-37	
100				m-70, c-30	
107				m-56, c-51	
108				m-82, c-26	
TOTALS—	2	6	11	10	29
OUT OF LINE—	0	*3	*2	*1	6

experienced in the investigation and selection of foster homes? This is exactly what we have done and the results are presented herewith. In the third place, therefore, we have rated 29 additional homes that were investigated by the social workers of the Minnesota Children's Bureau. These homes were also urban homes. In each case the living room of the home was checked on the score card. Subsequently and independently each home was classified by the social worker as "poor," "fair," "good," or "excel-

lent," and finally and quite independently of these operations, the author computed the score of each home from a study of the items checked on the score card.

A comparison of these results is shown in Table I. It will be observed that the homes rated as "poor" or "fair" by the social workers, have in general, lower scores than those rated as "good." Similarly, the homes rated as "excellent" by social workers have, in general, a higher score than those rated as "good."

However, between the extreme categories "poor" to "fair," on the one hand, and "excellent" on the other, there is agreement in rating and score. Thus we find corroboration of our rating scale on a third test. This does not mean, however, that the evidence here presented is sufficient to establish in any final sense the value of this scale. It merely shows that the scale has a certain degree of validity.

The relationship is shown more clearly in Table II—a condensation of the data of Table I.

TABLE II

COMPARISON OF SCORES AND SOCIAL WORKERS' OPINIONS

<i>Range of Total Scores</i>	<i>Number of Cases by Opinion of Social Workers</i>				<i>Per cent variation from highest scores</i>
	<i>Poor &amp; Fair</i>	<i>Good</i>	<i>Excellent</i>	<i>Totals</i>	
0-33	5			5	0
39-75	3	9	1	13	7 to 23%
79-108		2	9	11	18%
TOTALS	8	11	10	29	Average 18%
PER CENT VARIATION IN OPINIONS	37%	18%	10%	Average 37%	



Consideration of Table II indicates that the per cent variations from the boxes containing the highest frequency are less on the horizontal or rows (range of opinions), than on the vertical or columns (range of scores). Another way of saying this is that there is a greater concentration of low scores under the "poor" to "fair" (5 as compared with 0), and of medium scores under "good" (9 as compared with 3 and 1); than there is of low scores under the category "poor" (5 as compared with 3) or of medium scores under "good" (9 as compared with 2). In other words, the "fair" category is more dispersed over a quantitative range, and the "good" is more dispersed over a quantitative range, than is the low score (0 to 33) or the medium score (39 to 75) or the high score (79 to 108) dispersed over the "poor" to "good" to "excellent" range. The percentages of variation are shown in summary for the columns and rows as "average per cent." This seems to indicate that the quantitative ratings are less variable or more stable, than the qualitative opinions. Hence we may say, that for this study at least, the internal evidence of the data indicates that quantitative ratings are more reliable than qualitative opinions. These statements naturally apply only to the data of our table. Any general statement comparing the relative validity of opinions and scores in sizing up foster homes would have to depend for its validity upon a much larger number of cases than are here analyzed. Moreover, additional samples of a similar sort should be studied before the validity of the tool is really established. The next steps in testing the scale are suggested in "Directions to visitor" printed on the score card. Paragraph No. 4 outlines how to collect information that can be used eventually to test the reliability of the scale.

## III. PRACTICAL CONCLUSIONS

To return to the practical question. May we conclude that the expert opinions of experienced foster home investigators are to be scrapped and quantitative ratings substituted? By no means! No quantitative scale can ever be a complete and adequate substitute for the mature judgment of specialists. The problem of selection is too complex for such an easy solution. What we can say, however, is that our rating scale supplies an impersonal and objective test of variability of judgment. By using this scale it is possible for a supervisor to detect variations in judgment that might otherwise be obscure or indeterminate. The rating scale brings into relief the marginal differences in opinion and helps clarify the issue. The rating scale challenges the variate judgment to produce evidence in justification. This service is useful inasmuch as it promotes analytical examination of processes and makes social workers professionally conscious and critical of their procedures. The rating scale is therefore submitted to the consideration of research workers, supervisors, and executives as a simple device for checking up on variations of judgment of their staffs. Persons who are interested may procure copies of the rating scale from the Institute of Child Welfare, University of Minnesota.

## CONTEMPORARY SOCIETY AS A CULTURE PHENOMENON

WILSON D. WALLIS

*University of Minnesota*

THERE ARE many approaches to the study of social life and each has peculiar advantages. One can approach the study of social phenomena from the psychological angle, ascertain their psychological meanings, and describe them in psychological terminology. Every situation is a stimulus, every appreciation of it is a reaction to it, every mental accretion is a psychological integration, and every mental modification is a psychological re-integration. Thus one can describe any phase of social life in psychological terms, or if some are lacking new categories can be invented, for every social situation is a psychological situation.

One who is predisposed to see things from the historical angle describes social phenomena from that point of view, for every social phenomenon has a historical background, and time will soon make any social phenomenon a matter of history. The social phenomena of today can be described in the history of tomorrow.

One may be geographically minded and disposed to describe phenomena in their space distribution, for every social phenomenon happens not merely somewhen but also somewhere, and if it has a history or will have one, assuredly it has a geography. Geographical configurations can be made to include everything which happens, has happened, or will happen. Social life can be delineated on a map in which different tints represent various phases

of social life; and it is possible in a series of maps to portray the changes in space distribution during preceding decades, centuries, and millennia. Some time, no doubt, such a series of maps will be accessible, and they will facilitate a comprehension of the geography of social phenomena.

We are now concerned with the respective merits of these and other methods of approach. No doubt each has advantages which no other method of approach possesses. All of them should be utilized, for each presents a phase of social reality and helps toward an understanding of social phenomena. We shall not now propose the advantages of any one method of approach over any other but shall merely summarize some of the possibilities which inhere in the culture approach.

Culture is the life of a people as typified in contacts, institutions, and equipment. It includes characteristic concepts and behavior, customs and traditions. No laws of psychology would lead one to expect that the forms of culture would differ much from one group of men to another, or indeed from one century to another; yet so much do they differ that in every politically independent group they are to some extent unique, and as between many culture groups there is in the details of the culture no identity whatever. Western civilization, for example, is a unique phenomenon.

A culture has not been previously precisely what it now is, it never has been, and presumably never will be completely duplicated in any other area, and the conclusion is irresistible that it will not remain as it now is. Thus any culture, considered in its totality, is a unique phenomenon, and there is reason to believe that no culture is static, but each changes continually. Certainly this statement holds of contemporary society. The culture approach possesses an especial advantage in the study of social phenom-

ena because in it all the relevant phenomena of sociology can be oriented, and their significance can be shown. The older methods of approach have yielded mainly a hodgepodge of findings and fancies which are seldom interesting when true, and seldom true when interesting, and in the main they reveal neither plot nor story. But to one who regards contemporary society as a culture area the play and interplay of traits gives ample scope for plot, and the story depicts the life of the group. The culture approach also makes clearer the significance of the various phases of social life, which as bare entities are bare indeed. Thus, for example, an account of family life which isolates it from the culture conveys little appreciation of life as it is actually lived by members of the family, for the concrete reality of actual family life can be ascertained only through knowledge of the culture.

The term "contemporary society" is itself a culture concept, for it is used by common consent in our culture to refer to our social life, although this is certainly no more contemporary than the lives of thousands of cultures and of millions of human beings which we do not include in this term. Contemporary society—we shall give it the usual culture reference—has geographical boundaries. These change and sometimes it is difficult to know precisely where they run. They usually fade away gradually at their margins, and they are not clear-cut like political boundaries.

If one crosses the Canadian boundary west of the Great Lakes one enters no essentially different culture area; but the differences are greater if one crosses the Rio Grande. Mexican culture is European but it differs more from the American than does that of western Canada. In fact one enters another sphere of culture influence before one arrives at the Rio Grande. That culture is typified in Span-



ish place names, Spanish dress, the occasional use of the Spanish language, Spanish dishes, Spanish architecture, both of the mud-hut type and of the grandee type, and by many other phases of Spanish-Mexican culture which have percolated into the southwest of the United States. South of the Rio Grande there are many reminders of the different culture to the north, for the transition from one culture area to the other is not abrupt, as in crossing political boundaries, but it is gradual, a shading off and a shading on. In many instances a band rather than an invisible line separates culture areas; nevertheless, the general distribution of Western civilization can be definitely ascertained. One can detect the geographical areas in which it predominates, and one can trace the approximate geographical boundaries of the culture.

This overlapping of culture areas is in part the result of the infiltrations of people from the adjacent culture, but it represents, also, the spread of culture traits. These travel from Mexico into the United States, and in the contrary direction; for a culture area is both the recipient and the giver of traits.

A clustering of traits which function as a unified whole has been called a complex. The Christmas celebration, in which the tree, the hanging of stockings, the giving of presents, the use of sweets, the attention paid to children, the singing of carols, the use of candles, and other traits, tend to cohere, and constitute the Christmas complex. Similarly with many other celebrations, such as Easter, Halloween, Thanksgiving, Armistice Day. The automobile and the traits which cluster about it, such as oil stations and garages, constitute a culture complex, and so, perhaps, does the factory system. The family, the church, the university, constitute other culture complexes. A cluster of traits, or a trait complex, illustrates the fact that certain

traits are vitally interdependent. As a matter of fact, any trait is dependent upon certain others, and usually a trait is dependent upon a great many, if not all, of the traits of the culture. Indeed, although a culture can be analyzed into the traits of which it is composed, it cannot be described by merely enumerating the component traits. The traits function, else they become defunct, as, of course, some traits do. If, therefore, a trait is dropped from the culture other traits are influenced. If automobiles, for example, were disbarred from use, many other traits of the culture would be influenced. Remove churches, saloons, educational institutions, newspapers, printing presses, street cars, radios, telephones, private ownership, the wage system, the franchise, the factory system, or any other dominant traits, and inevitably the culture will be greatly affected.

Similarly, when a new trait is added the entire culture is affected, although some portions of it, that is to say, some traits, are influenced more than are others. The automobile, for example, has affected every agency of transportation—railroad, street car, horse-drawn vehicle, and walking; the telephone has affected a thousand phases of our culture, the radio has affected many phases and promises to affect more. The Industrial Revolution was in essence merely the utilization of machinery, but probably every trait in western culture has been affected by it. A doctrine of equal rights spreads from the original realm of male suffrage based on property and influences the status of children, the poor, the mentally deficient, subject peoples, and those of the cruder cultures. It has influenced educational systems and curricula, and all phases of literature. Slavery eventually influences every phase of the culture. Thanks to it there are a thousand problems which would not exist, at least not in their present form, had slave labor not been introduced. Social life is a phase of

culture and it cannot be divorced, save in thought, from other phases. One can describe contemporary family life without confusing it with the automobile, the radio, or the postal system, but it is impossible to describe the functioning of contemporary family life without reckoning with the automobile, the radio, the postal system and every other outstanding feature of the culture, for they each and all affect family life. The extension of the suffrage, compulsory education, new legislation with regard to wages and hours of work, the shift in the status of women, playgrounds, the youth movement, these and many other things affect the status of the family and its members. Every hypothesis or conclusion in psychology, ethics, or politics has reverberations in the family circle. Similar observations apply to every aspect of contemporary society: witness the extent to which the churches have been influenced as a result of the introduction of new traits into the culture, whether these were material objects, concepts, theories, or ideals.

Problems of social reconstruction are largely problems of culture, and they can be dealt with intelligently only by taking due account of culture traits. To attempt to solve, or even to understand, the problems of the family without considering them in their culture setting is only a little more hopeful than attempting to ascertain their real nature by isolating the family group and observing it in social vacuum. Whatever else it may be, the problem of the family is one of adjustment within the entire culture. Thus the concept of culture brings the phenomena of social life into one frame of reference, and a unifying scheme is devoutly to be desired; it provides an orientation of significant social data and a possibility of bringing order out of chaos. The culture reality must be appreciated in order to understand the significance of social phenomena, for

the specific character of an institution can be ascertained only through a knowledge of the culture in which it functions. As the meaning of a word is always to some extent determined by its context, so the meaning of a social situation is always to some extent influenced by the complexion of the social milieu. However much two social phenomena, considered as isolated phenomena may resemble one another, their setting in the culture may give them different significance.

Thus eating human flesh is cannibalism but in one area the practice may be supported by economic motives, in another by sentimental attachment to one's kin from whom one is loth to part, in another area it may be based on the concept that thus one acquires the virtues of the deceased. Some of these motives radiate through a goodly portion of the respective cultures, with supporting ethics, mythology, folklore, and perhaps tribal customs. In Western civilization the attitudes toward eating horse flesh, mussels, clams, frog legs, tripe, snails, beans, snakes, sharks, shrimp, are largely matters of culture. Culture traits provide solid ground for investigation, and it may be surmised that the mere placement in cultures of some apparently trivial things, such as preference for mussels and rejection of clams in the Old World and preference for clams and rejection of mussels in the New World, which have been characteristic of these respective areas from prehistoric times to the present, will facilitate an appreciation of the basis of social evaluations. Such things as preference for parliamentary and responsible party government or for irresponsible elected representatives, for beer or for prohibition, for this or for that religion, party, or principle, are largely matters of culture placement. And if that is the case, then for an understanding of their existence one must go to the culture in which, for which, and because of

which they exist. For a hundred thousand years culture has been the foundation on which men have builded. There may be culture mutations, but if so they are mutations, that is, they are divergencies from ancestral type, for culture continuity holds at every moment of the story, and it is impossible to believe that it will be otherwise in ages to come. Social life must be builded in and of a culture. For what can it profit men if they gain the whole world of social utopia but lose culture? A social life which is not moulded within a culture is as futile as freedom in empty space, as a grammar without a language, and as a language in which no things or concepts correspond with the words. The culture reference gives the fullest meaning to social phenomena.

The culture approach calls not for the rejection but rather for the employment of every fruitful method of approach in understanding its data. It utilizes the findings of historian, psychologist, statistician, theorist, and observer. For the principal objective in the culture approach is to orient the data in the manner which makes them most significant.



## A NEW KIND OF COMMUNITY STUDY<sup>1</sup>

CLARENCE MARSH CASE

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THE AUTHOR of the remarkable memory-survey, *In Cabins and Sod-Houses*, is President Emeritus of the State University of Iowa, long-time Professor of Botany in that institution, leading American authority and textbook writer on slime-moulds, geologist, publicist, an all-round student of things human, ferns and mosses, forests and mountains, and a real tradition and institution at the State University and throughout the length and breadth of that commonwealth. The appearance of any book from such a personage, couched in the exquisite format long characteristic of the celebrated State Historical Society of Iowa, would be an event in itself, and one eagerly welcomed by hosts of Iowans from Rock Island to Long Beach; but it is more than that. We have here a volume in several respects as unique as the man who created it, and which is amply able to stand on its own merits, even if they had been unattached to such a name as that of "Macbride of Iowa," or had borne no name at all.

Yet even were the book anonymous, its perusal must necessarily have led the discriminating reader at the outset, and on every succeeding page, to demand some knowledge of its author, because a book such as this can be only the ripe fruit of a life-time, and of a personality as rich in native endowment and acquired excellences as it is in wealth of experience.

<sup>1</sup> *In Cabins and Sod-Houses*. By Thomas Huston Macbride. The State Historical Society of Iowa, Iowa City, 1928, pp. xv+368.

*In Cabins and Sod-Houses* is a work possessing significance for the sociologist because it represents a new type of community study based upon a peculiar kind of human document. The author wished to portray, not the detailed course of outward historical events, but the real inner life of the Iowa pioneer community. He has endeavored, with extraordinary success, to show what the men and women on the frontier prairies thought and felt, near the middle of the Nineteenth Century, both about themselves, their daily life, and the larger life of the nation and the world. The result is something more truly historical than history itself in the ordinary sense of the term, because it shows the living fountains from which the outward "events" of history take their rise. The supreme historical value of the book is that through its fascinating pages one actually enters and lives vicariously the experiences of the pioneer past as it went on in the rich and varied fullness of the daily walk and conversation of that unsung multitude who are in a large and vital sense the makers of history.

The human document by means of which this is done is the output of the astounding memory and creative imagination of the author, as he looks back upon three score and ten years and more. The scenes he paints are those in which he was often directly an actor. In his own words, he has "always made a definite attempt to describe accurately landscapes mental as well as physical." Thus memory has full sway in laying out the essential values of the scene, but creative imagination is evoked to lift the narrative from the literal portrayal of particular individuals to the construction of genuinely significant *types*. This is done apparently, by allowing first one historic individual, then another, to take the leading rôle according as the author felt him to be "fitted to be the speaker for the group."

Dr. Macbride thus plays the rôle of an historical and sociological *artist*, bringing powerfully into play that selective and creative activity which is the very essence of all historical and other artistic work. His account of the Iowa prairie life is consequently much more vitally truthful than a literal but prosy historical narrative, for the same reason that the portrayal of a scene by a great landscape painter is more genuinely true to nature than the minute but indiscriminating record made by the highly sensitive but insensate photographic film.

Among the more sociologically significant scenes is that of the building of the first school-house and the inauguration, under its roof, of the first Sunday School. As the author remarks, "Men and women love to find a common interest, an excuse for the assembling of themselves together. On the prairie such excuses were not too many, especially on Sunday; and in the absence of a church, the humble, less formal, absolutely democratic institution of Robert Raikes, all apart from any religious significance, filled acceptably and beautifully a real need" (p. 105). How broadly communal this institution was is reflected in the quiet humor of this remark: "In summer, of course, adults, save those concerned in teaching, might seek the shadows of the pair of large cotton-wood trees already known to readers of this history." (*Ibid.*)

The "Lyceum" offers another rich field for the sociological student interested in this vanished community so imperishably brought to life by the genius of Dr. Macbride. To it he devotes five masterly chapters, the first opening with these words:

"Surely the community of kindred spirits, like the communion of the saints, knows not the limitation of space or years," said Father Blew when he heard that the neighbors had formed a debating society to meet in the schoolhouse

and at the instance of Philo Morris had named the organization a *Lyceum*, the specific title to be later on determined." Famous public men were elected to honorary membership and among those who "thought the courtesy worth acknowledging" are mentioned Lincoln and Douglas, Emerson and Whittier, while an amusingly pithy reply from Horace Greely is reproduced from the records of the society.

While our concern here is principally directed toward the sociological significance of the book, it is impossible to suppress some mention of its humor, literary excellence, and the profound love of nature, which, almost with the depth of religious feeling, pervades its pages. "The religion of the Bible and the politics of his country were the two themes that for the pioneer always secured most prompt attention. Of these he never wearied; in those dull days such topics were even thought important!" Yet while abundantly articulate and polemic on these high themes upon proper occasion, "In the presence of strangers our country folk were little inclined to talk; they were wont to observe; and sometimes talked, later on!" This reticence was an especial feature of meal-time. Mrs. Peet, as hostess, is pictured as rattling cheerily along in comment on the "ham we cured ourselves . . . corn-cob smoked" apologizing to have "left only plum and wild-grape jelly; but I have a mince pie on the stove for anybody who does not care for plum tarts," but "Her guests, be it noted, said not a word. Silence is sometimes eloquence itself; and report goes that in the Peet house on a certain Sunday, there was silence for the space of half-an-hour" (p. 194).

Passing over many passages of rare beauty, let us quote one which brings to a focus that ever-present, naturalistic, yet romantic background which endows this volume with

its deep historic and sociological meaning, while it illustrates at the same time something of the author's style:

"Was it not said that on a quiet summer afternoon, over all the township, doors and windows open wide, a peculiar rustling murmur might betimes be heard, faint, musical, yet in measured *human* sweetness, soft-blending, reenforcing as was believed, that other harmony elusive, which at such a season the shafts of sunlight seem to stir on hill and in valley, on far-stretching plain, in foliage of solemn, silent trees, in springing grass blades of wild marsh and meadow, nor less in myriad pushing corn-leaves on a hundred glowing farms—the melody of things that grow, the old, old, far-floating melody of Life's unending, dreamy song" (p. 232).

In these days, when Steiner's new community type studies, and the Lynds' application of the anthropological method in their survey of "Middletown" have directed renewed attention to the sociology of communal life, Macbride's memory-picture of the early prairie community comes as a real contribution to sociologists, and to those among them especially who see in culture history and the culture concept the leading clue to social science.



## RUSSIAN STUDENT TRAITS

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IN THIS statement about Russian personality traits, it should be borne in mind at the outset that the writer is probably thinking of one kind of Russian and the readers of several other kinds. For example, when I think Russia, I have in mind great masses of peasants described by Platonov, the illustrious Russian historian, who have endured much suffering,<sup>1</sup> who are childlike, naïve, and who have no sense of time; who as Hindus and Hecker have recently pointed out, are lovers of the soil,<sup>2</sup> peaceful and deeply religious.<sup>3</sup> When the ordinary American reader thinks of Russia, it is doubtless in terms either of chain-gangs wending their way across Siberian snows into exile, or of fierce, uncouth peasants, or in terms of Red Bolshevism.

The ideas and point of view of this article are based upon eight years of rather intimate acquaintanceship with all classes of Russian people. After spending a year in learning the Russian language, I entered the University of St.

\* EDITORIAL NOTE: The substance of this article was given in an address before the members of the sociological honorary society, Alpha Kappa Delta, of the University of Southern California. The informal nature of the address has been retained. Although it relates to the life of Russian students in the pre-Bolshevik days, it has special significance today.

<sup>1</sup> *A History of Russia* by Serge Platanov, Macmillan, New York, 1925, pp. 267-310.

<sup>2</sup> *Broken Earth*, by M. Hindus, International Publishers, New York, 1926, pp. 14-17.

<sup>3</sup> *Religion Under the Soviets* (Vanguard Press). Vanguard Press, 1927, pp. 1-14.

Petersburg as a student, enrolling in the historical-philological department. The five semesters which I spent in this University yielded an invaluable fund of personal experience and an opportunity for intimate contact and observation. It was while walking arm in arm with sociable Russian students down the long corridors of the university that I learned of their political, social, and religious backgrounds<sup>4</sup> and aspirations. It was here that I discovered that the major sport of many Russian students about the year 1910 was to conspire against the government. In those dreary winter months, having no other wholesome outlet for pent-up feelings of hostility and ill-will, they gave vent to these feelings in political plots and street demonstrations.

The outstanding characteristics of student life in those days were these: loneliness, poverty, high idealism, willingness to suffer for political or social causes, inclinations to suicide, a sense of being torch-bearers of enlightenment to the dark masses in the provinces. These traits will be discussed briefly because of the light that they cast upon Russian personality traits in general.

Loneliness was such a striking characteristic because students were not permitted by the police to gather in numbers of more than a dozen or so without special permission. Hence students could not congregate except within the walls of the university or technical schools. No group life, no fraternity life, no athletic activities, no freedom of movement so familiar to American students lent variety and gaiety to the routine of university life in Russia. Instead, the typical Russian student had a friend or two who visited him in his rented quarters. He went to classes, went back to his room or to walk, went to the res-

<sup>4</sup> See excellent work of Bernard Pares, *A History of Russia*, Alfred Knopf, 1926, pp. 3-20.

taurant for his meals, returned to his room to study. Isolation, loneliness, therefore was a prominent characteristic.

In addition poverty was for thousands another distinguishing mark of student life. Out of a slim budget ranging from thirty-five to sixty roubles per month, room-rent, board, books, laundry, incidentals were paid. Hundreds of students could not afford to buy dinner every day. Many of my friends were accustomed to dining only every other day; the rest of the time they "filled up" on black bread and tea.

Notwithstanding such hardships, one marveled at the high idealism which these students showed. They were willing to risk their careers for their social and political ideas. In those days politics was their religion. With utter abandonment many of them would place themselves at the head of labor demonstrations only to be nipped off by the police and sent into exile. I have some vivid memories of an episode in connection with the death of Count Leo Tolstoy. Russian students idolized this world figure. At the time of his death several hundred students in the University of St. Petersburg were in the act of arranging for a memorial service in honor of Tolstoy and while thus engaged they were raided by the police. Two of us Americans happened to be caught in the round-up, but were immediately released, while approximately two hundred of the Russians were exiled to Siberia or outlying provinces for no other crime than that they wished to honor their beloved Tolstoy. This incident affords a glimpse into the harsh treatment of students by the government.

Again the idealism of the students ran so high, and in contrast the outlook for the realization of ideas and ideals was so gloomy in those days that the only solution of the riddle of life for many of these eager students was suicide.

<sup>5</sup> A rouble at that time, pre-war, was approximately 51 cents.

Students of both sexes in the bloom of youth, after enduring the rigors of a bitter winter, overwhelmed by the brightness and joy of spring would find their spirits out of accord with the cheerful mien of nature and in despair over the utterly hopeless future (to them) welcomed suicide as a relief. A trusted Russian friend interpreted these suicides as an expression of extreme idealism. Reality stood in such dark contrast to their ideal that they could not bear to live. Such a dramatic solution is to most American youths startling and forbidding, but to many Russians it was a natural and inevitable conclusion.

Again, I marveled at the wide range of reading which the Russian students accomplished and particularly how well read they were in foreign literatures through translations. Their choice of American authors was surprising, but it was soon readily understood why they chose Jack London, for instance, or Walt Whitman. It was the love of freedom and adventure which these writers incarnated. Mark Twain was also a great favorite among them and his humor even through translation convulsed them with laughter.

Furthermore a strong undercurrent of genuine religion characterized Russian student life at that time. In this matter the students merely reflected a general trait of the Russian people, a nature inherently and deeply religious. It was true that many students protested against the ecclesiastical form of religion prevalent at the time, but they nevertheless admired and revered the religious aspirations of such writers as Dostoievsky, Tolstoy, Solovyeff, and others. There was a strong desire to make religion more social, more practical. The government repressed any practical expressions.

The contrast between the German and Russian traits is illustrated by the following incident. It seems as though

it were only yesterday that my esteemed old German professor at the University of Marburg exclaimed, "Ah, Mein Gott, Vy do you go to that land of barbarians, where there is no 'Kultur,' no sanitation, no enlightenment? Vy do you throw your life away by going to live in that land of dirt and darkness?" Many a time I wished that I might have returned to tell that professor that he "had Russia all wrong." Some of the things which he said were probably true enough, but I know that one could find in Russia things of greater importance than German 'Kultur,' more valuable to the people than even mechanical efficiency, sanitation, and orderliness. At his distance, the professor failed to appreciate the value of those human qualities of compassion, mercy, humility, and a deep social interest in just common folk.<sup>6</sup> Great tides of human interest and concern for the personal welfare of one's humblest neighbor surge through the Russian breast. Such matters as mechanical efficiency or even punctuality or orderliness seem in contrast, superficial or insignificant.

In summarizing the outstanding Russian traits,<sup>7</sup> I would say that their lack of orderliness, or of the sense of time, or of executive genius is offset by friendliness, congeniality, pity, compassion, piety, and humble mindedness.<sup>8</sup> Without doubt Russia has been retarded in her national progress by a lack of system and business methods, but her true genius and contribution lie in the things of the spirit and in the realm of the artistic, the mystic, the philosophic. Here Russia runs deep. She is weak in the mechanics but strong in the humanities of life. What count tremendously with Russians are persons,—not things.

<sup>6</sup> *Essays on Russian Novelists*, W. L. Phelps, Macmillan, 1911, pp. 1-34.

<sup>7</sup> *The Russian People*, Baring, Methuen, London, 1911, chapter 1.

<sup>8</sup> *Broken Earth*, M. Hindus, International Publishers, New York, 1926, pp. 90 ff.



## "SYSTEMATIC SOCIOLOGY IN GERMANY"\*

BRUNO LASKER

*The Inquiry, New York City*

Is PROFESSOR CHARLES A. ELLWOOD justified in complaining of the paucity of the recent contributions made to sociology in Europe? Compared with the stream of excellent interpretive studies, both general and specialized, that flow from our university presses, the worthwhile literature that has come from the continent of Europe since the war may, indeed, seem disappointingly small. And not only in volume: if we look back over the last two decades or so, really significant advances in methodology have been made in American sociology which, off hand, do not seem to have been matched abroad with studies of similar, enriching variety of scope and actual achievement. Few names have emerged in the European schools of sociology comparable in brilliance with the new stars in other social sciences.

And yet, it is possible to prophecy that the recent German advances in systematic sociology, of which Mr. Abel reviews the more important in the book before us, will prove more influential in time than the vast volume of our American research. For the science has arrived at a crucial point where only willingness to adopt an unhurried, philosophical attitude to its problems will save it from blundering to a catastrophic finale. The four men principally discussed in this book have not by any means clearly shown the way in which the science should go, but

\* This is a critique of Theodore Abel's *Systematic Sociology in Germany*, published by Columbia University Press, 1929, pp. 169.

the trends in thinking which, with others, they have set going are proof that the much advertised German faculty for thoroughness still exists.

Academic thoroughness develops a radicalism which has its dangers when it is too far aloof from the realities of social life in their perplexing mixture. And one must agree with the author that Georg Simmel, most renowned of these latter-day scholars, has most completely left behind the solid earth of verifiable facts in his construction of a new sociological system. Simmel so narrowed down the concept of sociology as to miss a large part of the problems which, since they do not fall within the scope of any other established discipline, sociologists the world over have hitherto regarded as "their meat." He did this by making a complete distinction between form and content of social interaction, and by claiming that only form is the legitimate subject of sociology while the study of content falls into the scope of other social sciences. This theory, of course, implies an abandonment of the very achievements upon which American sociology most prides itself—achievements in the interpretation of social phenomena that have produced valid guiding lines to social action. But, as Mr. Abel shows, in Simmel's own work that separation is often contradicted by his concern with aims, attitudes, and other ingredients of interaction.

Alfred Vierkandt's and Leopold von Wiese's sociological systems share Simmel's leaning toward logic and his basic distinction between content and form. But the former has defined sociology as a purely abstract, systematic and formal science, while the latter has applied the joint concern with form to the concrete social processes that are open to a behavioristic and quantitative study. Vierkandt soon got himself into opposition to current tendencies in experimental psychology by postulating "inner evidences"

that do not stand the test of empirical investigations. His sympathies are with the slightly mystical, philosophic idealism now popular in Germany which is reinforced by the prevailing vogue for discussing "wholes" and social patterns rather than particular functional phenomena. He thus arrives at a concept of social group spirit—as distinct from, and independent, of, the totality of individual mentalities in their interaction in a given situation—which is similar to the concept of culture personality espoused by Germany's leading anthropologists.

Von Wiese may, though perhaps not quite correctly, be described as a behaviorist with a tendency to single out the kinetic element in social relations as most worthy of sociological study. Action patterns however, interest him only as the material for a systematic presentation of social process. Like Simmel, he rigorously separates this formal aspect of social happening from the study of psychology and denies the name of sociology to those studies which we usually include in its "applied" branches.

At this point, a word of appreciation may not be out of place for the critical ability with which the author has set forth these various theories and systems—by no means an easy task when one remembers how strange many of them are to current American thinking, and how rare a sustained critical note has become in our sociological literature. His fullest sympathy seems to be with the work of the fourth of the German sociological systems under review, that of the late Max Weber, a scholar of amazing versatility and insight.

Weber's emphasis is on the study of social relations. He may be said to represent the realist in the group, but the kind of realist which only Germany seems to produce: a student who uses factual interpretation, not for the sake of adding that much concrete evidence to the body of sys-

tematically arranged knowledge, but for the sake of checking abstractions of a formal nature. Weber was among those social scientists who created a wide public interest in the problems of motivation in the formation and functioning of social institutions. He, likewise, had to break ground by stressing the essential difference between the method of sociology and the method of the natural sciences. (Indeed, it has taken a whole generation of thinkers to pry sociology loose from the false analogies that prevailed in the nineties; and in our own country that process of salvage seems by no means as yet completed.) Psychology, he held, gives "explanations" of social behavior; sociology gives "understanding." In this antithesis a whole movement expresses itself that has many influential adherents. The sciences of culture, or *Geisteswissenschaften*, have assumed an undercurrent of Bergsonian philosophy, a concern with the living connections which, intuitively apprehended, produce "understanding"; while the natural sciences, accumulating their evidence bit by bit, at most enlarge our range of factual acquaintance.

Weber's reconstruction of systematic sociology comes nearer the felt needs of sociologists (and of social practitioners) everywhere than any other outstanding exponent of the trends set going by Simmel because he was consciously aiming at a science which had for its chief concern the predictability of phenomena. To be able to anticipate social behavior, he claimed, something more is needed than a mere piling up of proof that such and such things have taken place under such and such conditions,—and something more than a system of logic. To the present reviewer it seems likely that this pointing of systematic sociology toward the problems of comprehension, thus ending the exaggerated regard in which its quantitative explorations have been held, may prove one of the most valuable contributions to sociology in our day.

## POPULATION TYPES ACCORDING TO AGE DISTRIBUTION

BRUCE L. MELVIN

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A POPULATION theory respecting type and age distribution was promulgated some years ago by the Swedish statistician Sundbärg. "He distinguishes three types of age distribution. The first is the *Progressive Type*, the second the *Stationary Type*, and the third the *Regressive Type*."

TABLE I

THEORETICAL AGE DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO TYPE

<i>Population Type</i>	<i>Per Cent in Age Groups</i>		
	0 to 14	15 to 49	50 and above
Progressive	40	50	10
Stationary	33	50	17
Regressive	20	50	30

"If the percentage of persons between 15 and 50 years of age is much less than 50 it indicates that the place has lost by emigration and this may be termed the secessive type; while if the percentage of persons between 15 and 50 years of age is greater than 50 it may be termed the acccessive type.<sup>1</sup>

The purposes of this paper are two: (a) to examine various units of population in the United States on the prem-

<sup>1</sup> Quotations and table taken from *Vital Statistics*, by Whipple, George C. Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1919.



ises of the theory, and (b) to scrutinize the theory in view of the age distribution of various units of our population.

The theory seems to rest upon one basis, the movement of population. However, the age distribution of a population apparently designates additional characteristics which are offered as suggestions in this analysis.

TABLE II

## AGE DISTRIBUTION IN THE UNITED STATES

<i>Year</i>	<i>Per Cent of Population in Age Groups</i>		
	0 to 14	15 to 49	50 and above
1920	31.8	52.8	15.4
1910	32.1	53.8	14.1
1900	34.4	52.1	13.5

The population of the United States was in 1920 nearer the stationary type than either in 1910 or 1900. The percentage in the 15 to 49 years age group indicates a veering toward the accessive, while the percentage in the ages below 15 is a little below the stationary. The percentage in the 15 to 49 years age group in 1910 was more of the accessive nature than either 1900 or 1920. This theory probably fits the facts in the case very well since at that time (1910) a large immigrant population was being received.

Since the population of the United States has a higher percentage in both the age groups 50 years of age and above, and 15 to 49 but a smaller percentage below 15 than are the theoretical distributions, I should prefer to call this a vital type. This variation is probably due to the increase of the average span of life that has occurred within the last few decades. Indeed, one is led to question seriously the meaning of the term progressive as here used.

TABLE III

AGE DISTRIBUTION IN THE VARIOUS DIVISIONS OF THE UNITED STATES

<i>Division</i>	<i>Per Cent of Population in Age Groups</i>		
	0 to 14	15 to 49	50 and above
New England	28.5	53.1	18.4
Middle Atlantic	29.9	54.2	15.9
East North Central	29.3	53.5	17.2
West North Central	31.2	52.3	16.5
East South Central	37.1	49.7	13.6
West South Central	36.5	51.8	11.7
Mountain	33.2	52.8	14.0
Pacific	25.2	56.0	18.8

No geographic division in the United States conforms to any type. The percentage of the total in the age group 15 to 49 indicates an accessive type in all divisions excepting the East South Central; the East South Central is the only one having less than 50 per cent of the total in this age group. The percentages in the age group below 15 for the three Divisions, New England, Middle Atlantic, and East North Central, indicate a type midway between the stationary and recessive, and the percentages of the population 50 years of age and above signify a stationary type. Taking again the percentages in the age group below 15 for the East South Central and West South Central Divisions as criteria, these areas would be between stationary and progressive. The percentages belonging in the ages 50 and above would indicate the same. Before drawing conclusions more details for particular states are worth examining.

TABLE IV

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION IN SELECTED STATES

<i>State</i>	<i>Per Cent of Population in each Age Group</i>		
	0 to 14	15 to 49	50 and above
New York	27.8	55.5	16.7
Massachusetts	28.0	53.9	18.1
Pennsylvania	32.1	52.5	15.4

Iowa	29.9	52.0	18.1
Nebraska	32.0	52.3	15.7
Kansas	31.2	51.7	17.1
North Carolina	40.4	47.7	11.9
Georgia	38.3	49.8	11.9
Mississippi	38.5	49.6	11.9

Nine states of varying types (Table IV), agriculturally, industrially and racially were selected for further examination. New York, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania are primarily industrial; Iowa, Nebraska and Kansas are dominantly rural; and North Carolina, Georgia and Mississippi are largely rural with a high percentage of the population negro. All the states excepting the three in the south are accessive, if we regard only the percentages in the 15 to 49 year group. The three in the south are close to normal, 50 per cent in the age group 15 to 49, though North Carolina might be considered slightly recessive. The percentages in the groups below 15 and 50 and above indicate progressive types for the three southern states.

TABLE V

## AGE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION IN SELECTED CITIES

City	<i>Per Cent of Population in each Age Group</i>		
	0 to 14	15 to 49	50 and above
New York	28.3	58.0	13.7
Chicago	28.0	58.3	13.7
San Francisco	19.3	63.1	17.6
St. Louis	23.5	60.1	16.4
Cleveland	29.5	58.6	11.9
Detroit	27.1	62.3	10.6

The percentage distribution of the population in six selected cities has been made (Table V). The per cent of the total in the 15 to 49 year age grouping show all to have an accessive type of population. San Francisco is the most marked, with 63.1 per cent of its population in this category. The percentages in the ages below 15 evidence a population between the stationary and recessive types, which is open to serious question.

TABLE VI

DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL POPULATION IN DIFFERENT GROUPS FOR  
TOMPKINS AND SCHUYLER COUNTIES, NEW YORK<sup>2</sup>

<i>Place and Character of same</i>	<i>Population considered</i>	<i>Per cent of Population in Age Groups</i>		
		0 to 14	15 to 49	50 and above
Rural popula- tion		27.7	45.4	26.9
Incorporated vil- lages		22.0	48.5	29.5
Unincorporated villages		26.6	44.5	28.9
Open country		30.2	44.5	25.3
Unincorporated village, satellite of Ithaca	308	30.5	53.6	15.9
Unincorporated village. Indus- trial, foreign- born	491	35.2	52.3	12.5
Incorporated. In- dustrial, native- born	1469	23.7	51.2	25.1
Unincorporated village. Agri- cultural area	229	20.1	37.1	42.8
Incorporated vil- lage. Agricul- tural area	1148	17.4	43.6	39.0

The high percentages in the 15 to 49 groups for Detroit, St. Louis, and San Francisco manifest the character of the cities, that of being industrial more than anything else. At the same time the percentages in the same age group for New York, Chicago, and Cleveland disclose the commercial nature of these centers.

We next come to an examination of the rural population and its various units. The conclusions are based on a

<sup>2</sup> Based upon "Rural Population, Tompkins and Schuyler Counties, New York, 1925." Bruce L. Melvin, Memoir, Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station. Now in process of publication.

limited amount of data: they are indicative of the situation in the dairy section of Southern New York (Table VI). Taking the total of the rural population, the percentage, 45.4, of the total population in the age group, 15 to 49, shows a recessive type. At the same time the proportion of the total in the ages below 15 and 50 and above indicate a population type midway between the stationary and the recessive.

When the different residential groups of the rural population are separated they show varying characteristics. The satellite village, one contiguous to a city, has an accessive population, 53.6 per cent of the total population belongs in the 15 to 49 year age group. Likewise, the two industrial villages are accessive, if we use the same criteria, since both have over 50 per cent of their population in the age group 15 to 49. The one composed of foreign-born and their children would be regarded as progressive, using the percentage, 35.2, below 15 as a basis, while the other is regressive; 23.7 per cent is below 15.

The villages in the agricultural areas are both secessive and regressive. The percentages of the total population in the 15 to 49 year age group are well below 50, and the proportions in the age group below 15 are near 20. The theory is open to question at this point: the agricultural villages are the receivers, the accessors of the old from the open country, which gives them a preponderance in the upper age groups.

After this examination of the various populations there emerge certain conclusions that may be drawn, respecting the validity of the theory of the character of the population. The percentage of the total population in the age group, 15 to 49, is more indicative of the type of population than are the percentages below 15 and 50 and above. This fact is due to the increasing control of dis-



eases and deaths for childhood and old age, which is evidenced by the 30.2 per cent of the population of the open country below 15 and only 44.5 per cent in the 15 to 49 year ages.

The percentage from 15 to 49 inclusive indicates the occupational character of a city, town, or village. An exceedingly high proportion in this group marks an industrial center; for a city the portion in the commercial metropolis is lower than the industrial. The same holds true for the rural population, industry draws those of the productive ages.

When a population has more than 50 per cent of its total in the age groups 15 to 49 it is generally accessive, but when below 50 per cent, secessive.

## A NEW AID TO RESEARCH ON CRIME AND THE CRIMINAL

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SIGNIFICANT publications in the field of sociology are becoming so numerous as to cause most teachers of the subject concern regarding the problem of keeping abreast of the total literature on matters of sociological importance. Occasionally, however, there appears some book which stands out from the great bulk of this literature as a publication of high value and unusual significance.

Such a book has just appeared under the title *A Guide to Material on Crime and Criminal Justice*.<sup>1</sup> This publication is destined to remain a standard reference work for years to come. And so far as research work in the field of sociology is concerned, the present writer considers this second in importance to no other publication of the present century. This opinion is based on such considerations as: (1) comprehensiveness; (2) the detailed and analytical character of its classifications; (3) emphasis on modern materials; (4) selection of the references by experts; (5) the importance of the problems of crime, criminals and their treatment, not only to those having a research or purely academic interest, but also to society; and (6) the great convenience of the work for research purposes.

Something of the scope of this bibliography is suggested by its subtitle: *A Classified and Annotated Union Catalog of Books, Monographs, Pamphlets, and of Periodical Arti-*

<sup>1</sup> The H. W. Wilson Company, N. Y., 1929; 633 pp.; \$12.00.

*cles Relating to Criminology, the Administration of Social Justice, Criminal Law, Police, Judicial Organization Criminal Procedure, Punishment, Institutional Treatment of Offenders in Prisons, Jails and Reformatories, Pardon, Parole, Probation, the Juvenile Court, and Crime Prevention.*

There are 13,276 main entries, each having its own serial number. ". . . additional references in the form of analytical cross-references are in terms of these serial numbers giving chapters or pages whenever specific reference is made to a portion of a given work."<sup>2</sup> By giving each item a number, the system of cross-reference, together with all directions, is made extremely simple. This method avoids confusion of names of authors, editors, compilers, titles, etc., and reduces the space used to a small fraction of what otherwise would have been required.

The catalogs of thirteen outstanding libraries in the United States were checked to discover in which of them the materials listed in the Guide might be found.<sup>3</sup> A separate symbol is given for each of these libraries. Each entry in the bibliography is followed by one or more of these symbols, thus showing in which of the thirteen libraries the document may be found, in case it proves unavailable in one's own community.

The preparation of a classification of materials for a reference work of this type is necessarily a task of great importance. This work was accomplished through a cooperative procedure in which leading authorities and experts on the various subjects involved participated. Among the sociologists in this special group of experts were Professors E. H. Sutherland and Stuart A. Queen, who worked on the classification of materials in Criminology and Penology.

<sup>2</sup> Directions for Use, p. 1.

<sup>3</sup> The libraries include The Library of Congress, The University of Chicago Library, and others well-known to research workers.

The complete classification is given in detail as the "Table of Contents" of the book. It covers more than twenty-five pages. Seventeen general Sections represent the main divisions of the work. These follow so closely the topics mentioned in the subtitle of the book, they need not be repeated here. The title of each Section, Sub-section, Division, Subdivision, etc., is accompanied, in table of contents and wherever else it appears in the book, by the serial numbers of the first and last entries under that title. The largest general Section contains over 2300 items.

A highly valuable service has been rendered by including brief notations for documents considered of special value for research purposes whenever the scope, content and method of treatment are not clearly indicated by the title. Careful students will appreciate the fact that all annotations are descriptive rather than critical.

Certain limitations in the work may be mentioned without reducing the value of the Guide. For example, there are minor inconsistencies in the form and style of entries. Again, certain duplicate entries might have been avoided. Another difficulty lay in the problem of showing all holdings of a given library on a given topic. But all of these were practically unavoidable, due to the fact that different libraries employ different cataloging methods. Still another obstacle to consistent treatment was found in the differences in forms of abbreviations used by various indexes to periodical literature. But the reader will find, in an appendix to the Guide, a comprehensive list of abbreviations for periodicals, covering more than six pages, alphabetically arranged. Another distinct service is found in the printing of the tables of contents of important documents.

The most recent materials included are those published just prior to January 1, 1927, excepting materials in man-

uscript form on that date. However, as Professor Kuhlman points out in his Preface, publications in this field, appearing after 1926, have been currently listed in the issues of the *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*. Another limitation as to time period covered by the materials is indicated by the fact that indexes to periodical literature dating prior to the year 1900 have not been included. But some of the indexes only began publication in 1907, 1908, 1915, and 1916, respectively. Furthermore, most of the materials on crime, appearing before 1900, are of relatively little value, particularly for research purposes. Additional references, however, have been added from local and special bibliographies as provided and recommended by various State Assistants.

There doubtless will be some students complain because many of the items included in the catalog are of no positive value for research, in spite of the fact that every reasonable effort was made to make the catalog a "selected" list. However, it should be remembered that such a work as this is prepared for a wide variety of students representing many different types of need for information. And the scholars who selected the titles included in this book gave some of them a place because of some historical value. For example, documents now known to be of negative scientific validity will often be of real value to those interested in discovering what methods, policies, and programs have failed in the past, and what hypotheses have had to be discarded. Such materials can aid in avoiding further failures, disappointments, and waste of time and effort in research and experimentation.

There is no author index to the book. But in a work of this type no such index is to be expected, since the real purpose of the bibliography under discussion here is to answer the question "What has been written?" rather than



the question "Who has written something?" Authors' names, of course, are always given with the references themselves. In this connection should be mentioned the complete Alphabetic Subject Index which follows the Table of Contents. In this Index each subject is accompanied by reference to the serial numbers of items included under that subject. Selecting one at random, for illustration, we find: "Care of mentally abnormal: 10496-551; in jails, 11118-19; in reformatories, 11334-5."

One of the appendices gives a list of Cooperating State Research Assistants. Each state is represented in this list, which contains the names of several sociologists familiar to readers of *SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL RESEARCH*. These assistants are credited with supplying "numerous references and descriptions of local research projects which could not have been obtained except through local field work." (p. 8)

The present writer thinks there will be many readers who would have appreciated more facts concerning the origin of the movement which produced this catalog. Only the more important points can be mentioned here. Although a unit in its own right, this work is also Part I of a report on a preliminary survey of research on crime and criminal justice in this country. Part II of this report is yet to be published. It will also be a distinct unit, and will have for its special subject *The Present Status of Research on Crime and Criminal Justice in the United States*. The work on both parts of the report has been carried on under the auspices of the Social Science Research Council. A special committee of the Council was appointed to have immediate charge of the work. This committee consists of Dean Justin Miller, of the University of Southern California School of Law, Chairman; Professor Raymond Moley, of Columbia University; and Professor Augustus

F. Kuhlman, of the University of Missouri. Professor Kuhlman had direct charge of the work on the Guide. Professor Moley is preparing Part II of the committee's report. The Council "felt that this survey, by describing methods employed, scope, and personnel of previous inquiries, would disclose which phases of the crime problem had been studied scientifically, and would show the gaps in completed and current research in this field." (Preface, p. 5).

Professor Kuhlman, in his Preface, gives due recognition to the valuable work contributed by the various scholars and experts who assisted in preparation of the contents of the Guide. The present writer would also emphasize the contribution of the publishers in their judicious use of many type forms, distribution of space, and organization of material so as to make of the printed page itself a tool which will facilitate the work of the researcher or others who may consult this book.

As this article is being written, the writer is in receipt of the first two numbers of a periodical which should be mentioned in connection with the catalog under discussion. For this new Journal is also produced under the auspices of the Social Science Research Council. Its title is: *Social Science Abstracts: A Comprehensive Abstracting and Indexing Journal of the World's Literature in the Social Sciences*. This Journal is to appear monthly, a thirteenth issue appearing annually to provide a cumulative authors' index and an elaborate systematic and subject index. The first number is dated March, 1929. Articles appearing in publications in many languages will be read and condensed by authorities in such fields as Sociology, Economics, Political Science, and Cultural Anthropology. Such brief summaries for the field of Sociology began to appear in the *American Journal of Sociology* in 1896 and in *SOCIOLOGY*

AND SOCIAL RESEARCH with its origin. A similar service for Economics began in 1911 in the *American Economics Review*. *Social Science Abstracts* will, of course, cover a much wider range of interests, taking advantage of materials appearing in some 2,600 social science journals throughout the world.

Again, the Social Science Research Council has also stimulated the preparation of an *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*. This is to be a monumental work covering some fifteen volumes, the first of which is expected to appear before the fall of 1929.

There are still scattered persons who feel doubtful concerning the dignity of social science. But in the publications mentioned in this article, and in others, there is concrete evidence of not only the earnestness and sincerity of social scientists, but also of their far-reaching scholarship, their advance along scientific lines, their ability to cooperate effectively in important scientific undertakings, and their capacity for organizing results into systematic form. And the excellent work already done on the *Guide to Material on Crime and Criminal Justice* suggests the possibility and need for other catalogs of like character, devoted to other social science subjects and problems. Poverty, dependency and related problems might well form the basis for one such bibliography. Another might be organized around materials on social forces, social processes, and such related subjects as social institutions and the social aspects of personality. While such materials would be of special interest to sociologists, a wide variety of professions and specialists in other academic subjects would find use for them.

## OCCUPATIONS OF JAPANESE IN LOS ANGELES

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WITH A great stride in the development of the city of Los Angeles, it is a significant fact that the congestion of Japanese population has also placed its center of movement in Los Angeles, and consequently, in recent years the Japanese population of Los Angeles has greatly surpassed those of San Francisco and Seattle, both of which have much older histories and stronger foundations in their development.

According to the census taken by the Japanese consulate at Los Angeles in the year of 1927, the Japanese population in the city of Los Angeles then numbered 29,499, of which 19,047 were males and 10,452 females. It is further reported that the increase of population within a year (1926-1927) is about 6,100. It does not seem unreasonable therefore to estimate the population of Japanese in Los Angeles at present—at the beginning of 1929—as approximately 30,000. This figure includes the number of Koreans and the former residents of Famosa. Should this be compared with that of San Francisco,<sup>1</sup> which has a total of 10,584, of which 5,806 are males and 4,778 females, the rapid growth of the Japanese population in this city in recent years can be clearly seen. Out of this large population, there are about 12,000 men and 400 women who are actually engaging in various forms of occupations; the rest as the members of families, 8,000 being males and 10,000 females.

<sup>1</sup> From the *Japanese-American News*, Dec. 16, 1928.

A. A list of occupations and organizations in each of which more than five Japanese are employed.<sup>2</sup>

1. Groceries .....	292
2. Hotels .....	221
3. Fruit stands.....	203
4. Cafe and restaurants.....	108
5. Barber shops.....	107
6. Flower shops.....	74
7. Nurseries .....	69
8. Dye and cleaning.....	68
9. Japanese style restaurants.....	65
10. Chop-suey houses.....	48
11. Farm-product agencies.....	38
12. Business corporations.....	28
13. Insurance agencies.....	28
14. Tailor shops .....	26
15. Soft-drink stands .....	25
16. Provision dealers .....	23
17. Pool houses .....	20
18. Garages .....	19
19. Baths .....	18
20. Food manufacturing firms.....	16
21. Cosmetic goods stores.....	16
22. Seed stores .....	15
23. Candy shops .....	15
24. Shoe shops and repairing.....	14
25. Jeweleries .....	13
26. Carpentries .....	13
27. Fertilizer supplies .....	12
28. Laundries .....	12
29. Studios .....	12
30. Drug stores .....	11
31. Other manufacturing firms.....	11
32. Auto sales agencies.....	10
33. Printing shops .....	10
34. Private employment bureaus.....	9
35. Auto hiring .....	9

<sup>2</sup> From Japanese directories of 1928.



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36. Transfer business .....	9
37. Fish markets .....	8
38. Stationery and book stores.....	8
39. Auto-supply shops .....	6
40. Painters and plumbers.....	6
41. Hardware stores .....	5
42. Sport goods stores.....	5
43. Hospitals and infirmaries.....	33
44. Private Japanese schools.....	32
45. Churches .....	21
46. Newspaper and periodical Co.....	19
47. Lawyers and interpreters' offices.....	19

## B. The number of persons engaged in various occupations, in each of which there are more than 10 individuals.<sup>3</sup>

1. Employees in banks, offices and corporations..	1,408
2. Gardeners .....	1,322
3. Employees in fruit stands.....	1,262
4. House workers and cooks.....	1,146
5. Employees in restaurants.....	583
6. Other employees .....	500
7. Barbers .....	110
8. Railroad employees .....	102
9. Tailors .....	52
10. Chauffeurs .....	61
11. Waitresses .....	45
12. Employees on newspapers and magazines.....	42
13. Workers in laundries.....	35
14. Employees in transfer Co.....	34
15. Brokers .....	26
16. Ministers .....	22
17. Doctors .....	55
Dentists .....	18
Pharmacists .....	8
Nurses .....	15
18. Unemployed .....	350

<sup>3</sup> From the census taken by Japanese Consulate at Los Angeles in 1927.

## TYPES OF OCCUPATIONS

The occupations of Japanese have not undergone a considerable change for a long period of time. There are mainly two types of business occupations,<sup>4</sup> those which deal with Americans as well as with other races, and others which deal more or less exclusively with Japanese. The occupations of the latter type have far exceeded those of the former in number as well as in profit-making. The same tendency had been growing until 1924, the year in which the Exclusion Act was passed. Since then, and in these days particularly, business among Japanese has rather been in a state of inactivity, and as a consequence the opposite tendency has become apparent; that is, that the number of the former type has steadily increased while that of the latter type shows no such tendency, even to the smallest degree. Thus, there are now, as the figures indicate, 203 fruit stands, 292 groceries, 74 flower shops, 69 nurseries, 108 restaurants, and 68 dye and cleaning establishments, all of which deal primarily with others than Japanese. Here, though out of place, a word may be added with reference to the fact that a great deal of the work in vegetable markets is being done by Japanese, and the influence of Japanese in these places cannot be ignored just for the sake of race prejudice alone.

On the other hand, though there are many varieties, businesses which involve Japanese show a lack of expansion, and in the recent past they seem to have made no progress, if they have not retrograded. One may doubt whether or not the large figures for hotels are an exception. In this case, to be sure, the figures do not prove the recent growth of the business; it rather reminds us of the time when the

<sup>4</sup> A similar classification appears in the "Japanese Guide to Southern California," the *Rafu Shimpo*, 1926.

Japanese community in general was at its height in business prosperity. Furthermore, the hotels are not altogether for the use of Japanese. There are many Japanese hotels scattered over the city doing business with other races as well; some of them, however, for the laboring classes; a few of them are no better than lodging houses.

This changing phenomenon of the occupations of Japanese from one type to the other is not at all an indication that the Japanese have been promoted from lower to higher occupational status; it is simply an indication that by this change their stable living is less threatened or else a little better profit is assured.

Professional occupations are numerous, such as those represented by lawyers, ministers, doctors, teachers, newspaper men, and others. There are thirty-three hospitals and infirmaries and almost sixty doctors. The spiritual and moral side of the Japanese community is not neglected, for there are twenty-one churches, of which twelve are Christian, five Buddhist, and four Shintoist. There are thirty-two schools under the supervision and control of Japanese, thirteen being the schools of needlework, six Japanese language schools, six kindergartens, four English-teaching schools, and three art schools.

#### REASONS FOR CHOOSING AN OCCUPATION

One may think that it is rather foolish to ask for the reasons why people choose their occupations, for usually economic motive and individual talent and interest are the primary reasons. This may be true in general; but there are always exceptions to any rule. And there seems no doubt that the Japanese on the Pacific Coast may be excluded from the above generalization. They are practically prohibited from entering the fields in which they are most talented and interested. What is the result?

They naturally take up the work that simply gives them a temporary financial satisfaction. This situation leads to the "get-rich-quick" attitude, for they feel that, with a sufficient amount of earning, they may be able to do something worthwhile and interesting, after going back to Japan or else that they may be able to live comfortably wherever they may choose to live. This is at least one of the important reasons why anything like a large permanent corporation, which requires a long period of time, has not been started among Japanese.

For instance, ask any Japanese whether he is planning to go back to Japan or to stay in this country. One is sure to find that a considerable number of them would say that, whenever a favorable circumstance is given, they would not hesitate to go back to Japan. Therefore, they work in fruit stands and groceries for long hours in order to "get-rich-quick"; they work doubly hard in restaurants and cafes for the same reason. Can we blame them for that? To thoughtful persons, it is hardly possible to despise them as the people of a low standard of living when the present attitude of Americans seems to be a big factor which causes many of Japan-born Japanese to follow this course. There are two other types which are quite different from this group; they are: (1) those professional men who have built up economically more or less stable foundations of their own and who are willing to stay permanently in this country and to fight the battle for the betterment of the Japanese community as well as for the sake of the second generation; (2) others who have lost their battles of life and have no ambition and courage to do anything but continue their lives as best they may, and as long as they can in this country. But both of these groups are still in a small minority and we can not judge the Japanese people as a whole by either of these groups.

## AMERICAN ATTITUDES TOWARDS FILIPINOS

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PUBLIC OPINION regarding Filipino immigrants is especially important at the present time.<sup>1</sup> A worth-while method of approach to the study of public opinion is through a study of the personal attitudes of the members of the American public. Attitudes, or established personal tendencies to action, are at the core of public opinion.<sup>2</sup>

This report is based on case studies of the experiences of ninety persons representing a considerable range of occupation, ages from nineteen to seventy, both sexes, residents of the major leading sections of the United States. The conclusions stand for no more and no less than is represented by the first-hand accounts of ninety different persons of the types indicated.

The data fall into three classes: (I) that relating to experiences which have led to favorable attitudes toward Filipinos; (II) that relating to experiences which have produced unfavorable attitudes; and (III) that leading to rather careful discrimination between Filipinos on the basis of aims and evident merit. These classes of reactions will be presented in order.

<sup>1</sup> In SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL RESEARCH for May-June, 1928, a description of the movement to exclude Filipino immigrants from the United States was presented by the writer under the title: "The Filipino Immigrant Problem." The success or failure of this movement will depend upon public opinion.

<sup>2</sup> While subjective, attitudes are organized and expressed in relation to environmental phenomena.



## I

1. A type of favorable attitudes that goes back to 1898 is reported by many people. At the time of the capture of the Philippines by the United States, many stories were spread abroad in the United States, describing the terrible oppression which the Filipinos had experienced at the hands of "cruel Spaniards." Human sympathies were aroused in behalf of the oppressed peoples. Protestant Americans had their sympathies stimulated by the accounts given in the religious press of the oppression imposed on the Filipinos. The friendly attitudes so aroused toward Filipinos still function.

The quick response of the Filipinos to American occupation of the islands and to American education together with the reports of Filipino advancement that have come to the United States have added greatly to the favorable reactions of large numbers of Americans. These reactions have also been strengthened by the Filipino's urgent request for independence. His high political aspirations have aroused widespread response in the United States.

My first recollections of hearing about Filipinos go back to 1898 and Dewey's capture of Manila. I read about them as being a repressed people, and hence out of an elemental sympathy I developed a favorable attitude toward them. This attitude was strengthened as time went on, for I heard or read about them being referred to as "little brown people" or "our brown brothers of the Pacific."

The discussions in the newspapers of the struggle for independence being made by the Filipinos, of their rapid acceptance of education under American auspices, of their ambition to be self-governing, and of the haughtiness of certain of our American officials in Manila developed my favorable attitudes still further.<sup>3</sup>

2. Another set of favorable attitudes is widespread on the Pacific Coast and on the part of tourists from various

<sup>3</sup> From ms. secured by E. S. B.

parts of the United States to the Coast. It may be somewhat superficial in character, and easily changed, but its extent is its outstanding feature. It arises from the neat, well-groomed appearance, and courteous manners of Filipinos employed as elevator boys, as bell boys, and in cafes. Comment after comment runs the same way.

My first contacts with any Filipinos occurred several years ago on the Coast. I saw them in hotels and elevators and was drawn to them by their appearance, good looks, and manners. Their silence and self-control drew me to them, and my favorable impressions made me more favorable.<sup>4</sup>

3. Many Americans react favorably to Filipinos on the grounds that Filipinos whom they have employed have proved trustworthy and reliable. Very many Americans have reported favorably on the Filipino as being a splendid worker. Most of these reports come from Americans who employ Filipinos in individual capacities and not in considerable numbers. When numbers work together, then unrest and organized requests for higher wages are likely to ensue. Occasionally, a Filipino employed as a servant is reported as being inefficient and unsatisfactory.<sup>5</sup> The turnover is sometimes high. But these conditions, of course, may be as much or more the fault of the employer as of the employees. The individual Filipino laborers in the cities are praised by Americans for the fact that they are working in order to obtain an education. These educational ambitions and the attempts of Filipinos to get ahead bring them many friends in the United States.

<sup>4</sup> From ms. secured by E. S. B.

<sup>5</sup> The American who reports the Filipino to be inefficient rarely penetrates into the Filipino's social situation and life experiences in order to discover the real grounds for the inefficiency.

My father says that his impressions of Filipinos are favorable, that they are a smart, quick, and industrious race. . . . One of his friends owns a small cafe. This friend has two Filipinos who have worked for him for a number of years. They are very intelligent and very industrious workers. They speak English as well as does the average American.<sup>6</sup>

4. Closely related to the foregoing point is the struggle of the Filipinos to get ahead. Their industry, their evident ambition, appeal to fair-minded energetic Americans. Any person who is endeavoring to climb by his own efforts, providing he does not become a competitor, meets with favorable responses in the United States. The ways in which Filipinos are willing to work in order to get an education in the United States<sup>7</sup> is commented on favorably by all broad-minded Americans.

It was in January, 1929, I was sitting down stairs in an office building and I had several books which I had placed on the radiator. While I was standing there the postman came in to collect the evening mail—he was a Filipino. He immediately spied my books on the radiator and began to question me about them. We talked for thirty minutes and he told me that he was working as a postman to earn the money to return to the University. Naturally I questioned him as to his intentions after completing his education. He informed me that he realized he could do nothing here with his education, but that he was planning to return to his home.<sup>8</sup>

5. The current movement to exclude Filipinos from the United States<sup>9</sup> has aroused favorable attitudes toward them. Persons who have not hitherto been interested in them are asking if there is not some other way of solving the Filipino immigrant problem than by repeating our

<sup>6</sup> From ms. by F. E. H.

<sup>7</sup> Some of their numbers are enrolled in practically every university and college of size in the United States, not to mention their enrollment in high schools.

<sup>8</sup> From ms. by R. G.

<sup>9</sup> A bill to this effect was first introduced in Congress in May, 1927.

blunder relative to keeping the Japanese off the Quota. Individuals who are studying the problem react against our extremist attitudes, namely, of having no restrictions as now, and then, of proposing the opposite extreme of exclusion. The Filipinos are being considered as victims of narrow short-sightedness and frantic fears.<sup>10</sup>

Taken together, the favorable attitudes of Americans toward Filipinos in the United States are many and widespread. They are expressed by broad-minded people, who see Filipinos at their best, whose sympathies are aroused, and whose status is not endangered. Idealists, anti-racialists, youth movement participants are among the friends of the Filipinos. These friends, however, are not organized, although they are becoming articulate here and there, in conferences. The educational ambition, the willingness to work at menial tasks, the courtesy, the splendid appearance—these are the traits of Filipinos to which Americans respond favorably.

## II

Filipinos, however, like all other races, also arouse unfavorable reactions toward themselves. Sometimes they are innocent victims of this process, sometimes it is the intolerance of the American which is the explanatory factor, sometimes, unworthy members, low-grade members of the race arouse antagonism against the whole race.

1. Some persons report unfavorable attitudes toward Filipinos, which had their origins in 1904 or earlier. In 1904, there was a small reproduction of a Filipino village at the St. Louis Exposition, at which the Igorotes and other Filipino tribes were represented. The impressions

<sup>10</sup> There are no objections to restricting Filipino immigration adequately, but to wholesale exclusion, and to proceeding against the Filipinos independently, rather than of securing the needed restriction by joint action and mutual consent.

gained there by some Americans were that the Filipinos are not far removed from a tribal stage. The head-hunting proclivities of certain wild Filipinos made a permanent impression on many people. The Filipino in some of the side-shows and those who were sent about the United States in traveling shows were not far removed from savages. At least this is the picture that many persons still recall vividly. It may be added that many persons have experienced a number of contacts since the original ones, and that these later experiences have modified the earlier ones. It is seen, however, that the former unfavorable attitudes developed naturally. They have done the better class of Filipinos, however, a gross injustice.

My first contact with them was at the World's Fair in St. Louis, in 1904, I believe. Although I did not talk with them, I was definitely impressed unfavorably. I considered them practically on the same level as the American Indians. I thought them uncivilized and that they should not be admitted into the United States.<sup>11</sup>

Returned missionaries have sometimes unintentionally furthered these unfavorable attitudes. In their zeal in gaining support for missionary enterprises in the Philippines they have described some of the worst practices of Filipinos, and thus have reinforced the impressions that Filipinos are savages.

2. Another type of unfavorable attitudes originates in the occupational competition that the Filipinos offer. American workingmen and women who find themselves "out of a job," and who observe Filipinos being employed, at once and naturally grow antagonistic. This is a universal human trait. It is a common type of defense mechanism.

In particular, the unfavorable attitudes arise from the fact that on the Coast the Filipinos are displacing Ameri-

<sup>11</sup> From ms. secured by R. G.



cans as elevator and bell boys, seamen on coastwise shipping, white hotel maids. Many of the persons displaced react against the Filipinos with new but deep-seated prejudice.

The unfavorable attitudes of the displaced workers are very significant, however, for they are heeded by a powerful organization, namely, the labor union.<sup>12</sup> Organized labor has not only passed resolutions but is pressing for Congressional action to exclude Filipino laborers.

3. Another category of unfavorable attitudes toward the Filipinos is found in the reactions of ranchers and farmers who employ numbers of Filipino laborers. The latter are sometimes rated third or fourth choice as ranch laborers. Both the Mexicans and Japanese are given places ahead of them.<sup>13</sup> They are not as docile as either of the other groups. They are not as adaptable to heavy work on the farms as are the others. They organize quickly, go on a strike at inopportune moments from the farmer's standpoint, and seek the city. While some of these characteristics may be to the Filipino's credit, yet they create adverse reactions to him.

I happen to live in the center of the great fruit region of the San Joaquin Valley. Here, during the harvest season we are dependent upon the influx of thousands of transitory laborers. . . . In 1924, there were many Filipino laborers sent to the Valley. During the grape season we employed a crew of about fifty Filipinos. However, they proved to be the most unsatisfactory of any unskilled laborers we had ever hired. They were the very essence of independence, taking every advantage to cause their employer trouble, quarrelsome over contract prices and very intolerant toward workers of other races in the same field. . . .

During the peak of the season in 1927, I was forced to hire a crew of Filipino laborers to pick the crop of grapes. I had become

<sup>12</sup> For further details, see article by Paul Scharrenberg in *Public Affairs*, February, 1929, entitled, "The Philippine Problem."

<sup>13</sup> Judging by reports from San Joaquin Valley, California.

manager of the farm during the summer. These two weeks of harvest were the most bitter I have ever spent. I was constantly forced to warn them and tell them over and over again concerning the methods to use, which they knew perfectly well. About the third day when we were in a great rush, the Filipinos evidently thinking that we were in a very tight place, struck for higher wages. We were already paying a higher price per box than anyone around us. We refused to meet their exorbitant demands, whereupon a general riot ensued. The Filipinos became enraged and began to destroy anything they could lay their hands on. A neighbor, having finished picking his grapes, sent over a crew of Mexicans to finish our harvesting, which was consummated without any more difficulty and at a lower price.<sup>14</sup>

4. Another source of unfavorable attitudes is found in the Filipinos' disputes among themselves which become topics of common conversation. Even a Filipino Bible class may break up because of internal dissensions and jealousies. Cliques and divisions form easily. The Filipinos' strong desires to be leaders hinder good fellowship.

Some unfavorable attitudes arise when Filipinos are reported as being "big talkers" in their meetings, when Filipinos are reported as refusing to play the game if they cannot have their own way, as being headstrong and poor cooperators with one another.<sup>15</sup> These traits or reports of traits easily spread and the general public reacts adversely.

Their readiness to speak rather blatantly and at great length on heated questions on important occasions gave me the impression that it was merely an external "show off" tendency.

The Filipino representatives insisted on doing all the talking. They never made any attempt to understand what we were saying or

<sup>14</sup> From ms. by V. J. D.

<sup>15</sup> Dr. David P. Barrows, head of the educational system of the Philippines for six years, says that the Filipino has quick perceptions, retentive memory, aptitude, and extraordinary docility. He matures early . . . precocity and aptitude create the danger of his being superficial. (*Rev. of Reviews*, 64:653-54.).

<sup>16</sup> From interview secured by R. M.

trying to do. When one of them wasn't elected president, or asked to hold any office, he left the meeting. The other refused to cooperate, and was very hard to work with. All the Filipinos whom I have come in contact with since have acted in the same way. My attitude has become one of extreme dislike.

Mrs. M. has had similar experiences. She told me that in the Filipino clubs, no one was happy if he wasn't president, and that they couldn't seem to get along together. It was her opinion that the Filipinos were not ready to govern themselves until they could learn to work together and to forget individual attention. She was sure that conditions would be worse than they are in Mexico.<sup>17</sup>

5. Another basis of unfavorable attitudes is given by American girls and young women, who feeling a special sympathy for Filipinos, befriend them. The Filipino, being in the United States without opportunity to meet the women folks of his own people, is especially responsive, sometimes too much so from the standpoint of American girls and young women. He is likely to fall in love at first sight, reports more than one American girl. The result is embarrassing. A common outcome is antagonism and adverse attitudes on the part not only of American girls, but also of the latter's friends and relatives who learn of the "annoyances" and "pesterings."<sup>18</sup>

As I have observed them in class, in cosmopolitan clubs and private conversations, it has seemed to me that the Filipinos are likely to take advantage of any show of friendship. . . . I have characterized many of them to myself as "smart-Aleky" . . . This unfavorable change in my attitude has occurred in spite of my race equality and international friendship attitudes. Theoretically, I still try to be fair and unprejudiced toward the Filipinos, but practically I am forced to avoid them somewhat and hold them at a distance.<sup>19</sup>

<sup>17</sup> From ms. by M. F.

<sup>18</sup> Occasionally these charges against certain Filipinos appear in the daily press, for example, the report from Spokane, Washington, in the *Los Angeles Times*, Nov. 23, 1928.

<sup>19</sup> From ms. by C. M. P.

The young men are always well dressed and very courteous, but they seem to have the tendency of becoming too familiar in their attitude toward you on short acquaintance. Somehow I have had to take a reserved attitude toward them lately. . . . The sensuous, gaudily dressed, almost fierce-looking young Filipinos on the East Side of L. A. has tended to increase my physical aversion to them as a whole.<sup>20</sup>

My first experience with a Filipino was when I was still going to high school. I went to a dance under the auspices of some religious organization and a Filipino boy came up and asked me to dance. I was afraid to say "No," so I danced with him. After the dance was over he "stuck," as if he had no intention of leaving me for the rest of the evening. I became very resentful and as he persisted in his attentions I even became rude. . . . Whenever I visit the concessions at the beaches I feel insulted by the attempted flirtations that the Filipino boys in some of the booths invariably try to promote. You cannot squelch them—they are very persistent.<sup>21</sup>

### III

Interesting numbers of persons are showing a general discriminatory attitude. That is, they recognize that there are gradations of Filipinos just the same as there are different levels among the members of every other race. One person reports concerning one Filipino who disgusted her, but adds that she has met others whom she would like to know better. A young man states that some Filipinos are honest and hard workers and that others are lazy. Another person knows some Filipinos who are always gentlemanly and others who are always "fresh." A woman reports meeting five Filipinos in New Haven, Connecticut: "They were as different as you could imagine. One, for example, was as free as any young American; another

<sup>20</sup> From ms. by R. K.

<sup>21</sup> From interview secured by F. N.

really needed a nurse to look after him." In other words, this woman classified Filipinos into groups similar to those that would be useful in considering any other race. The differences between Filipinos identify them with all other races and with mankind. They are to be judged not only on the basis of color, or race, but each one in the light of worth of personality.



## Book Notes

**SOCIAL PROGRESS: A Theoretical Survey and Analysis.** By JOYCE O. HERTZLER. The Century Company, New York and London, 1928, pp. xxi+589.

As a thorough and comprehensive treatise on a baffling subject this volume will rank among the best. The author's conception of the task is broad, and his documentation gives evidence of really exhaustive acquaintance with the literature of the subject. The book opens with an extensive historical survey of the theory or notion of "progress," and proceeds to an analysis of the concept as now held, including the constituent ideas, criteria and objects, and the attitudes and processes involved. Next comes a discussion of the modifiability of human nature, followed by six chapters on "The Agents of Progress." These are found to be: intellect and knowledge; science and invention; exceptional individuals; ideals and programs; public opinion; and education. The discussion then passes into consideration of what should perhaps be called conditioning factors in social progress. At any rate the following chapters discuss, respectively, environmental aspects, biological nature and quality of population, quantity of population, political and legal aspects, economic, domestic and sexual, racial, revolutionary, ethical, esthetic, and religious aspects of progress. The final chapter is entitled "Prospect," and the author's conclusion is that "The problems that humanity faces can be solved, not immediately, but in calculable time. The truth is in the world, and now, as in the past, those who truly seek it will find it" (p. 572).

Professor Hertzler does not, however, succeed in pointing out the next steps either for our own national group or for the world. His scholarship is immense in the literature of this field, but his actual accomplishment, when it comes to indicating feasible control over the socio-historical actuality, is not greater than that of his predecessors. His volume provides an extensive and systematic survey of the subject, suitable for college classes undertaking such a course, but one feels, as Ross pointed out in his *Foundations of Sociology* as early as 1905, that sociologists are not likely to gain much solid ground

through discussions of such a subjective and evaluative concept as social "progress." To the present reviewer this whole literature of social progress, which the rivalry of the editors and publishers of different "Social Science Series" is multiplying at an alarming rate, has thus far shown a tendency to resolve itself into a new type of principles or outlines of sociology, in which the stock in trade of the general sociology course is brought under consideration from the single point of view of its social salubrity as seen by the "social progress" writer, and divided into two streams, one "inprogressive" and to be deprecated, the other "progressive" and to be advocated. The net result is to transmute an objective sociological survey into a subjective one.

The point of view of Professor Hertzler is that of Wardean social teleosis, and his emotional disposition is uniformly and pleasingly buoyant and optimistic. Altogether his attitude and outlook are very wholesome for young people to live with, and of the sort that appeals to most college students.

The book is a fine piece of scholarly work, with serious limitations that are chargeable more to the nature of the subject than to the shortcomings of the author.

C. M. C.

**MAN AND SOCIAL ACHIEVEMENT:** An Introduction to Social Evolution. By DONALD C. BABCOCK. Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1929, pp. xiv+546.

This is an elementary and introductory textbook. Its contents are not new, but the organization is intended as interpretative of a social sort of emergent evolution, an "epic of human unfolding." Social evolution is a process, a method, "the study of how man has come by his behavior-patterns."

Stressing probably the continuity of development, the author barely indicates that the book is divisible into three parts. The first four chapters are to supply the background of social evolution, touching upon environment, biology and psychology as factors in the emergence of man as a human being. Part II (chapters 5-14) deals with "emergent society" and in particular, material social manifestations, such as speech, tools, fire, weapons, metal culture, the economic stages and the arts, warfare, and building. Part III deals with social institutions and culture. Chapters 15-20 discuss marriage and the home, government and law, morals and ethics, religion, and aesthetics, and to my notion, this is the best section of the book. No ap-

parent division is suggested between them and chapters 21-24 by the author, but it seems to me that they could be regarded as a fourth part with more general application of the topics presented, such as the emergence of intelligence in social relations, behavior and culture, cultural forms and patterns.

Although the book shows influence from Hobhouse, Wundt, Lipert and others, more plainly the line of development conforms to the Sumner-Keller theory that culture and institutions have grown out of the folkways and mores, as given in their *Science of Society*.

I question the wisdom of giving such fanciful titles as each chapter in this book bears. Certainly no aid is thereby given one who refers to the table of contents. Selecting, for illustration: "Man Learns from the Gnomes" is the title used for "Metal Culture"; "Man Levies Toll on Creation" stands for "Early Forms of Food-Getting"; "Man Seeks a Center" for "Early Building"; "Man Seeks Something Beyond" suggests "Religion"; "Man Hears the Stars Sing" here means "Aesthetics"; "Man Dines Out" really is the "Social Elaboration of the Commonplace." And who would guess that "Man Treads the Dance of Life" is a chapter on "Culture as Human Behavior"? Such titles may be stimulating for lecture topics, but I prefer the chapter headings given in the Appendix and which conform to ordinary usage. I doubt that this imaginary dress gains anything for a book serving the practical purpose of orientation for social evolution. The Appendix includes questions and problems for discussion, and additional readings for each chapter. As a whole, the book makes interesting and easy reading.

J. E. N.

ANTHROPOLOGY AND MODERN LIFE. By FRANZ BOAS.  
W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., New York, 1928, pp. vii  
+246.

The thesis of this very readable and informing volume is that anthropology is not an entertaining diversion dealing merely with the strange customs of exotic peoples, but a science which "illuminates the social processes of our own times" (p. 11). Dr. Boas clearly distinguishes it as a *social science* when he explains that the anatomist, physiologist, and psychologist are interested always in the *individual* as a type, whereas "to the anthropologist, on the contrary, the individual "appears important only as a member of a racial or a social group. . . . The group, not the individual, is always the primary concern of the anthropologist" (pp. 12, 13).

Chapter II, "The Problem of Race," elaborates the idea, already expressed elsewhere by Dr. Boas, that most so-called racial traits are not really racial because not manifested in every member of the race, but only in part. Family lines, or "fraternities," are the significant things. Where the distribution of one form is different from that of another, the fraternities represent distinctive hereditary family lines. Many so-called racial traits are simply family traits descending in similar family lines within separate and distinct races. In such instances the resemblances between members of similar family lines in different races may be really greater than those between members of the same race. The racial "types" of current discussion are often quite subjective and highly misleading. "What we call nowadays a race of man consists of groups of individuals in which descent from common ancestors cannot be proved" (p. 23). So far as actual racial facts are concerned, "The differences between races are so small that they lie within the narrow range in the limits of which all forms may function equally well" (p. 40). Dr. Boas shows this by appeal to facts in the physical and mental realms, and is especially formidable against the pretensions of those intelligence testers who presume to sort the races of mankind with the present inadequate scientific equipment: "For large racial groups, acceptable proof of marked mental differences due to organic, not social, causes has never been given" (p. 59).

In his chapter on "The Interrelation of Races," the author holds that race antipathy is not an instinctive phenomenon (p. 65) but is social in character and due to group loyalty. In countries where artificial social barriers are absent no pronounced race feeling exists, and sex aversions and preferences ignore race lines and also race traits, selection being expressed "on the ground of the repulsiveness of other features" (p. 72). The process is by individual rather than group criteria.

In chapter IV, which deals with "Nationalism," Dr. Boas clearly distinguishes a "nation" as a political unit, from a "nationality" as a speech and culture group. Under these concepts he discusses helpfully the problems of the League of Nations and of international life, holding that beyond such aims as arbitration of disagreement or formal outlawing of war there "must be the recognition of common aims of all nations" (p. 93). As for our vehement race fanatics, one is glad to read this restrained but adequate word: "The idea of the great blond Aryan, the leader of mankind, is the result of self-admi-

ration that emotional thinkers have tried to sustain by imaginative reasoning. It has no foundation in observed fact" (p. 80).

On subsequent pages Dr. Boas turns to applications of anthropology and discusses Eugenics, Criminology, and Education in as many chapters, which must be read to be appreciated. The outstanding thing about his discourse, aside of course from its masterly scholarship, is its utter catholicity and never-failing liberality. Perhaps in no similar compass exists anywhere so much that is fundamental for a real sociology of education than his chapter entitled "Education."

Not only in that chapter, but in all his reasoning, one is impressed with the inadequate mental equipment of many who are so voluminously expounding such themes. As for eugenics, not only are we unable to set up defensible goals at this stage, but, if Dr. Boas is right, it contains in its own logic (or rather il-logic) the seeds of its own destruction, for "the more vigorously the eugenic ideals of the elimination of suffering and of self-development are held up the sooner shall we drift towards the destruction of the race" (p. 118).

As Dr. Boas shows, the hereditary doctrines fall woefully short in the field of criminology. "George Washington would have been a criminal if the English had caught him" (p. 122).

Even more important than the practical chapters mentioned are the two theoretical ones entitled respectively, "Stability of Culture," and "Modern Civilization and Primitive Culture." His basic ideas are that "every culture can be understood only as an historical growth" and that if "general laws relating to the growth of culture exist" they are obscured by historical accidents and not yet known to science (pp. 208, 209). In shaping the course of social development the problem of the general *human* values as against those that are traditional within a particular culture (p. 200 ff.) will have to be considered.

The volume throughout is rich in generalizations and principles that might well be counted contributions to sociology and social psychology, which suggests that social or cultural anthropology is in these days beginning to occupy the same ground with them, although approaching from a different and very effective quarter. One example must suffice:

More important than this is the emotional tone of words. Particularly those words that are symbols of groups of ideas to which we automatically respond in definite ways, have a fundamental value in shaping our behavior. They function as a release for habitual actions. In our modern civilization the words patriotism,



democracy or autocracy, liberty, are of this class. The real content of many of these is not important; important is their emotional value. Liberty may be non-existent; the word symbol will survive in all its power, although the actual condition may be one of subjection. The name democracy will induce people to accept autocracy as long as the symbol is kept intact.

C. M. C.

**SOCIAL RESEARCH.** By GEORGE A. LUNDBERG. Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1929, pp. xi+380.

Sociology is fast becoming aware of its need for better methods of research. Increasing attention is being directed on research methods, as evidenced by an examination and a classification of new sociological literature. The objectives of Professor Lundberg, as stated in the preface of his book are: (1) To emphasize the importance and objective observation; (2) to encourage a healthy and critical scepticism of statistical data; and (3) to give a general knowledge of the technique of gathering original data. Judged by these announced objectives, the author has done well. In reality, the author has accomplished two other related objectives. (1) He has vigorously examined and criticized the case analysis method, pointing out serious weaknesses in the life history and interview methods, and indicating points at which they need strengthening greatly. He feels that they are about as weak as the formal questionnaire method. If his attack will result in the perfecting of life history and interview technique it will be worth while. The beginning student, however, is likely to turn against the life history and interview procedure. (2) The author has brought together in forty-five pages the finest annotated bibliography on social research now available. It is comprehensive and scholarly. To the present reviewer the most outstanding chapter is the one on the measurement of attitudes. It contains a splendid survey and criticism of the methods now available for considering human attitudes. The strength of the book lies first in its collating nature and in the way in which related materials are brought together for study and use; and second, in its sane criticisms of the methods considered.

E. S. B.

**THE GENESIS OF THE SOCIAL GOSPEL.** By CHESTER CHARLTON McCOWN. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1929, pp. xv+394.

Professor McCown has succeeded immeasurably well in writing a fine discourse on the attitudes and ideals of Jesus in this new book. Based upon the thesis that Judaism represented not the evolution of

an isolated national group but rather a syncretism of the cultures of the Sumerians, Babylonians, Assyrians, Persians and Egyptians, the exposition necessarily deals with the diffusion and selection of all those cultural elements which finally become utilized by the Hebrews. This fine background considerably enhances the value of the book. Chapter XI, dealing specifically with the attitudes of Jesus, stands out with marked distinction for its comprehensive and analytical development. The attitudes portrayed are those centering about wealth and the wealthy, the masses, and humility. There is much to commend in the author's settlement of many debatable questions concerning the great teacher. For instance, he writes, "When he called down woes upon the rich, the happy, and the well-fed, he was not attacking individuals, but a system. He means that any social, political or economic organization of society which inevitably perpetuates proud, heartless wealth and dull, grinding poverty is wrong and must be changed if God's will is to be done on earth." There is a strong plea made for the study of those ideals which may become embodied in modern civilization; it is certain that we of this machine and predatory age need these ideals instilled into us more than ever before. The book deserves wide reading. M. J. V.

**RACE AND POPULATION PROBLEMS.** By HANNIBAL G. DUNCAN. Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1929, pp. xviii+424.

This book is intended to serve as a text in courses on Population Problems. It is divided into five parts dealing respectively with the rise and spread of the human group, biological and racial problems, movements of population and differences of culture, theories of population and population and its control. The subject matter is presented from the historical standpoint.

The author says that he "has attempted, in the some 650 quotations and citations used to present the major as well as some minor contributions to the field of population." He has also "striven to refrain from injecting his own conclusions." Accordingly the reader finds the book well filled with the findings of scores of writers and students as well as with a mass of facts and figures. When so many figures are used it becomes rather easy to overlook some inaccuracies; however, the extra zeros added on page 120 to the number of soldiers killed on battlefields should have been noticed in the proof-reading, or the absurdity of the estimates challenged.

At times the views of the author appear. For example, he is optimistic in respect to the available food supply. Other conditions than over-population are to a large extent responsible for the apparent shortage that exists in various parts of the world. The discussion of Control of Population is well organized and much valuable material is presented. Students, however, are not likely to suffer if some of it were omitted.

The Appendix contains a set of questions and exercises for every chapter and also a considerable bibliography. These exercises should assist materially in promoting and simplifying class discussion.

G. B. M.

AN OUTLINE OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY. By J. R. KANTOR.  
Follett Publishing Company, Chicago, 1929, pp. xiv+420.

A remarkable characteristic of this book is that with another title it might pass for a book on sociology proper. It may be viewed as being a cultural anthropology written by a psychologist. Social psychology is viewed as "a science of cultural conduct." Human conduct, in other words, is the reflection of cultural institutional life. The perspectives of social psychology are found in biological, anthropological, and psychological phenomena. The data of social psychology are found in institutions and the mechanisms of institutional development; institutions are defined as cultural stimuli. The study of cultural conduct culminates in considerations of behavior groups.

The author starts from a psychological viewpoint but seeks objectivity in this study of "conventional reactions to institutional stimuli." Concreteness is one of the marks by which social psychology is set apart from sociology; the former deals with the "concrete responses of persons to particular stimuli"; the latter with mass action or the statistical description of persons comprising groups." These statements indicate a misunderstanding of sociology, at least when it is conceived as psychological sociology. Much is made of culturalization process, and wisely so too. As somewhat extreme examples: "the popularly known 'negro-emotion' (superstition, fear, etc.) is all built up, just as the emotionality of women is acquired by our young girls during the early family period." Many stimulating and refreshing suggestions are found throughout this volume on psycho-cultural sociology.

E. S. B.

**THE RANGE OF SOCIAL THEORY.** By FLOYD N. HOUSE.  
Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1929, pp. x+587.

In format, content, and style this book is a very creditable addition to the series of excellent textbooks ably edited by Professor Howard W. Odum. The author, Professor House, shows himself a master of sociological theory and concepts, and the volume is especially valuable in showing from many sides the large part that is being played by the culture concept, among other tendencies, in contemporary thought. Not that Professor House sets out to exploit or magnify this or any particular trend. On the contrary, he develops admirably such diverse aspects as Human Geography, Sociology of Religion, and Educational Sociology. The significance of the culture idea stands out simply because the author's pages afford so clear a mirror of the actual tendencies of the times in the field of the social sciences.

The method is that of a careful, and partly chronological, survey and analysis of leading writings in the various subdivisions of sociology. The style is remarkably clear and coherent, leading the reader along step by step in an argument that marshals the facts of the literature and shows progression of thought in so far as the writings under review really represent such a movement.

The expression "range of social theory" in the title may be taken as applying more accurately to the admirable breadth of familiarity with theory and theories displayed by Professor House than to exhaustiveness of his review of literature within any of the fields. It would be possible to point out omissions in some of the chapters, as for instance, that on the Sociology of Religion, but probably this would be true of almost any work, and it is counterbalanced by the scholarly discrimination displayed in the selection of really significant works combined with unusually firm and really illuminating analysis of their essential logical content. C. M. C.

**THE LABOR MOVEMENT IN THE UNITED STATES, 1860-1895.** By NORMAN J. WARE. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1929, pp. xviii+409.

Professor Ware pleases to call this study of the Knights of Labor one in democracy, by which he means a study of a popular movement. He interprets the movement as an idea attempting to become a realistic force—the idea growing out of the disillusionment of labor with politics and out of an elemental simon-pure trade unionism,

and attempting by reform methods and education to establish the *solidarity* of labor. This fundamental idealism was in part shattered by a leader obviously unqualified to carry it into realistic proportions. The movement has been likened to that which characterizes the growth of a vague primitive and embryonic sentiment into a religion. The shibboleths of the movement were such terms as "justice," "freedom from wage slavery," "sufferings of the masses,"—all of which the author is inclined to hold are outworn cries in this day of declining interest in the call of the wage-earner. An integrated labor society seems a far cry today, and yet, there are still those who still cherish the old sentiments in the face of the ever-increasing integration and consolidation of the owners of capital.

Professor Ware's description gains in vividness because he has chosen to describe the movement largely through a study of the personality of the unfortunate Powderly, the inefficient, and yet cherished, leader of the Knights. The sketch of the rise and fall of the Knights is finely depicted; the dilemmas which brought about the final disaster were many, but the attempt to abolish the wage-system and the inauguration of a cooperative industrial system were rocks that were well calculated to wreck a vacillating captain and his ship. It had been virtually impossible to avoid strikes while protesting against them; to keep out of politics while forced into them from without; to work for important reforms while goaded into petty disputes by disgruntled leaders. In 1893, Powderly was ousted, but the next year saw the final collapse of the Knights of Labor in the United States. Professor Ware has accomplished a much-needed clarifying account of the industrial history of the post-civil war period.

M. J. V.

#### THE POLAR REGIONS IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY.

By MAJOR A. W. GREELEY. Little, Brown and Company, Boston, 1928, pp. x+270.

General Greeley, himself an explorer whose early expedition, 1881 to 1884, constitutes one of the heroic epics of Arctic exploration, has summarized eighty thousand pages of original narrative and packed the complete and authentic story of Arctic and Antarctic exploration into this moderate sized volume. The result is highly authoritative but disappointingly drab to anyone who has read the more detailed account of even a single Arctic expedition, Greeley's own being very far from the least thrilling. A man who has dem-



onstrated his ability to write heroic history in both word and deed has in this book turned his face like a flint to the very last paragraph of adventurous personal experience by himself or others, and presents the bare annals of a long line of achievements which in their rich details afford the most heart-breakingly absorbing story in human history. It is also a long story, covering many centuries and many lands, so the author dared not relent and introduce the thrilling details at many points, and therefore yielded at none. For his impartiality and restraint he must be commended. The outcome is apparently just what he set out to reach, namely, a compendium for "busy men, who, on this subject of general interest, wish to know what, when and where, rather than how" (p. v).

Every phase of polar exploration is included, in its proper sequence, and each step is treated in relation to both advance of knowledge and utilization of natural resources. The whole thing is done with a wealth of information and a systematic thoroughness that are bound to make it the authoritative compendium in this field for a very long time to come. This is the more true in view of General Greeley's painstaking accounts of all South Polar explorations down to the year 1921.

The book is well illustrated, and contains an especially valuable map of the Arctic Regions, prepared by the National Geographic Society for the *National Geographic Magazine*. This is a contribution that will be gladly welcomed by those who have experienced the peculiarly unsatisfactory cartography that has marred otherwise splendid books on Arctic exploration.

C. M. C.

**SOCIAL WORK AND THE TRAINING OF SOCIAL WORKERS.** By SYDNOR H. WALKER. The University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, 1928, pp. xiii+241.

This is a very ambitious attempt to canvas a wide range of factors and forces which enter into modern social work and which consequently influence the program and methods for training social workers. The many controversial issues have been particularly considered and educators in this field will find the discussion very stimulating particularly the chapters on "present educational facilities and needs," "schools of social work," and "social work and the social sciences." While the survey reveals many discouraging elements in the present situation, it serves to pool experiences and to furnish a point of departure for future experiments. The author's style is lucid and direct.

E. F. Y.

PRINCIPLES OF SOCIOLOGY. By RUDOLPH M. BINDER. Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1928, pp. xvi+609.

An outstanding characteristic of this new addition to introductory sociology textbooks is its thorough yet sane and balanced emphasis upon the biological factor in societal life. Part I devotes seven chapters to the treatment of "The Social Population," covering 180 pages. In this section the author develops his idea of "the uniqueness of the individual," basing it upon firm biological foundations. In so doing he points out the long and loudly trumpeted procession of psychological theories of personality. While they mean progress they "indicate the lack of a firm foundation" (p. 112) and "sociology is handicapped if it takes any of these uncertain hypotheses as a point of departure for the erection of its own building. The sociologist needs to go further back to biology which, while it has not yet reached final conclusions as to details, has at least established some definite principles as to general procedure and method." (Ibid.)

After a chapter on the environmental factor, in which he takes a moderate position, Professor Binder turns to "Social Motives," which occupies the three chapters of Part II. Here he sticks consistently to his premise of individual uniqueness, biological in origin, and only in part commensurable with physical environment. Raising the question, "How do these concrete individuals overcome their uniqueness or centrifugal tendencies so as to make society?" It is the answer to this that constitutes the second part of his argument, which shows the socializing part played by the social and cultural environment. The unique individual is characterized by an urge and desire *for completion*, and this completion he attains, more or less fully, through the give and take of the social life. These social motives, derived from the group-life, socialize the individual, but the next task is to explain the procedure by which this is accomplished. The attempt to do so produces Part III, entitled "Social Processes," in which three of the oppositional types (Opposition, Domination, Exploitation), and three of the cooperative type (Liberation, Toleration, Cooperation) are explained and illustrated after the general pattern set by Ross and Simmel.

Accompanying the above are three more general chapters in one of which, "Creation of Social Values or Culture," the author, notwithstanding his emphasis on the biological factor in accounting for the individual shows himself no advocate of biological determinism.

On the contrary he explicitly affirms, "Human society cannot be explained on a purely or even a primarily biological basis. That may be done with animal societies because animals have less plastic organisms and fewer psychical needs. Since the needs of animals are largely physical they do not use tools, as does man, and so they build no culture (p. 342). Thus the social process gives way, in the course of his discussion to the culture process, and it is through these two processes, or perhaps we should say this twofold process, that the unique individual attains his measure of socialized completion.

In Part IV, Professor Binder discusses "Social Institutions," regarding them as normalizing and standardizing agencies for the control and completion of the unique individuals. Part V is given to an exposition of social progress and social problems, under the general heading of "Social Aims."

The book is well organized in its several parts and chapters. It is teeming with valuable information which is the joint product of a strong emphasis upon matters of *fact*, a large fund of common sense and practical wisdom, and a distinctly sane and balanced appreciation of things both academic and broadly human.

The book gives an impression of sound and broad scholarship, and in the general field of social problems and that of *health* in the broadest social sense, where Professor Binder has already published notable writings, it is exceptionally strong.

C. M. C.

THE SYMBOLIC PROCESS. BY JOHN F. MARKEY. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York City, 1929, pp. xii+192.

In this scholarly work, the author sets himself the task of explaining "the genesis, integration, and functioning of symbols." He utilizes the behavioristic method for the analysis of speech reactions, thinking( which he calls reflective behavior), and the symbolic process. The latter is defined as the reflective or ideational process. A strong argument is made in behalf of a socially objective and behavioristic conception of personality and of social control.

A special study is made of the origins of symbols in the social experiences of young children. The meanings of the symbols that a child develops are found in his responses to his environment. The origin of thinking is found in the mediate response; and the origin of meaning in "sequential or functionally dependent relationship existing between parts of behavior." Personality is "realized in sym-

bolic integration." A group may manipulate personal symbols (a young boy, e.g., fears being called a "sissy" by his group), and thus the symbolic process is a generic phase of social control. While the author has not completely proved his case, he nevertheless has produced a commanding argument and made a substantial contribution to social psychology. He leans heavily upon the Gestalt and Behaviorism theories but redefines them more largely in social interrelation terms than is done by their originators. E. S. B.

TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR DELINQUENT GIRLS. By MARGARET REEVES. Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1929, pp. 445.

This belated publication gives the results of a careful study in 1924 of some 57 schools which care for girls only. The emphasis is upon administrative policies and methods with a constant attempt to evaluate them in terms of hygienic, educational and social criteria. Such a pooling of experiences is exceedingly valuable for institution executives. Indeed, much of the discussion might well appear in a general treatise on institution management. Throughout the study attention is paid to the problems of personality and character development; the location and design of the plant, the selection and training of personnel, the medical, the recreational, and educational programs are all related to the problem of developing under institutional conditions a type of girl capable of independent community life after discharge. However, one feels that the discussion of diet, medical treatment, physical plant and so on are on a much sounder basis of scientific knowledge than that dealing with discipline, morale, social diagnosis, training program and the like. Newer view points are widely in evidence, nevertheless, and real progress is in sight.

E. F. Y.

**PROCEEDINGS: FIRST COLLOQUIUM ON PERSONALITY INVESTIGATION.** Held under the Auspices of the American Psychiatric Association. Committee on Relations with the Social Sciences, New York, 1928, pp. 102. This is a carefully edited report of an academic discussion on point of view and methods of personality investigation participated in by sociologists, economists, psychologists, psychiatrists, anthropologists, and other scientists interested in the study of behavior. The purpose was to effect a rapprochement of the various sciences through frank discussion and interchange of views. The entire report is of prime importance particularly since it throws very clear light upon the difficulties with which social psychiatry is faced in its attempt to attain the rank of a social science.

**EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT OF PROBLEM CHILDREN.** By RICHARD H. PAYNTER and PHYLLIS BLANCHARD. The Commonwealth Fund, New York, 1929, pp. 72. Two groups of children numbering 167 and 163 respectively, examined as clients of demonstration child guidance clinics in Los Angeles and Philadelphia, serve as bases for the unexpected conclusion that the behavior problems of children do not necessarily impair educational achievement. At the conclusion of this scholarly document, prepared by two eminent psychologists, the increasing socialization of the public school is noted as evidenced by a recognition of extra-curricular childhood problems and by the use of clinics and visiting teachers.

**THE BALKAN PIVOT: YUGOSLAVIA.** By CHARLES A. BEARD and GEORGE RADIN. Macmillan Co., New York, 1929, pp. viii+325. The natural and economic resources, political organization, and foreign relations of a pivotal Balkan state are carefully described and analyzed. An interesting chapter is given on public opinion, measuring Yugoslavia against public opinion standards for a democratic government; these standards are: a wide liberty for the press; a generous freedom of speech, association, and meeting; and electorate not only literate but educated politically; a keen intellectual interest; the development of a varied literature; active participation of women in public affairs.

**SOME ASPECTS OF RELIEF IN FAMILY CASE WORK.** By GRACE F. MARCUS. The Charity Organization Society of New York, 1929, pp. xi+140. Miss Marcus has read critically 100 family case records in order to determine factors bearing upon the use of relief as a method of family rehabilitation. Much attention is paid to the attitudes of the family toward relief and of the social interaction between social workers and dependent families. The interrelation of problems of physical health, mental health, family relationships, employment with relief are discussed in a very illuminating manner.

**A THEORETICAL BASIS OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR.** By ALBERT P. WEISS. R. G. Adams & Co., Columbus, Ohio, 1929, pp. xvii+470. Clear and lucid are the author's explanations of behaviorism. A disciple of Max Weber and J. B. Watson, Dr. Weiss has succeeded in stating succinctly a behavioristic interpretation of human behavior, which, however, when it is purely behavioristic seems to omit something vital and important. There is no objection of course to behavioristic interpretations providing it is not claimed that they are all-inclusive and that they leave nothing more to be said.

**BETWEEN WAR AND PEACE. A Handbook for Peace Workers.** By FLORENCE B. BOECKEL. Macmillan Co., New York, 1926, pp. x+589. With extensive use of excerpts, the author presents first a group of valuable chapters on what is being done in behalf of peace-by-education, the church, women, commerce, labor, farmers, war veterans, and young people. Then follow descriptions of the League of Nations, the World Court, the War Outlawry movement, arbitrations, international law, pacifism, imperialism, war debts. An excellent bibliography is also given.



**HAVE WE KEPT THE FAITH? AMERICA AT THE CROSSROADS IN EDUCATION.** By C. A. PROSSER and C. R. ALLEN. Century Co., New York, 1929, pp. xvi+429. The authors question the present contribution of education in the hands of educators. They feel that "education" is getting out of touch with the thinking of intelligent citizens. Intelligent team work between the thinking citizen and the progressive educator is urged. It is contended that the emphasis today in colleges and high schools is not sufficient on training for citizenship.

**APPLICATIONS OF PSYCHOLOGY.** By FRED A. MOSS. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1929, pp. x+477. An exceedingly able treatise has been written by Professor Moss. Part I deals with "determining forces" in human behavior, such as internal stimuli; drugs, external factors; Part II, with "individual differences, due to race, family inheritance, past experience, age, sex; Part III, with applications of psychology in medicine, law, business, politics, education. The range of practical suggestions is very wide; their nature is both scientific and sane.

**DEMOCRACY.** By EDWARD M. SAIT. Century Co., New York, 1929, pp. vii+108. The author makes on incisive statement concerning the weaknesses and failure of modern political democracy. He reviews the field well, and inquires the way out. A modified democracy, it is implied, is better than idealistic schemes of autocracy. The author urges that we do away with our conceit about the superiority of democracy, and then plunge in to adjusting democracy and the conditions of the times to each other.

**THE REDISCOVERY OF AMERICA.** By WALDO FRANK. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1929, pp. 353. The author plunges into a discussion of the machine-age of American life, of the gods and cults of power, of women, of arts, censor, leaders, and maintains a lively style throughout. Materialism and mysticism are operative in America. Which will Americans choose? If they make no choice then an inexorable Fate will guide. Let Americans, however, keep busy in the labor of beauty.

**EFFECTIVE PREACHING.** Edited by G. BROMLEY OXNAM. The Abingdon Press, New York, 1929, pp. 260. An excellent selection of addresses by leading religious thinkers on preaching as a process of changing people's religious attitudes has been made by President Oxnam. New life and ideas are introduced into a time-honored occupation. The preacher is seen in his obligations to an industrial and social world, to an international world, as well as to an intensely personal and religious world.

**THE SOCIAL SERVICE EXCHANGE IN CHICAGO.** By ELIZABETH HUGHES and FRANCELLE STEUNKEL. (Social Service Monographs, No. 8) University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929, pp. xi+115. An account of the history, organization, methods, and functions of a standard social service exchange. Also contains some material on charities endorsement work.

**L'AVENIR DE L'ESTHETIQUE.** By ETIENNE SOURIAN. Felix Alcan, Paris, 1929, pp. 398. The author discusses the importance, history and nature of art as a growing science. Special attention is given to methods for determining the object of art and to the psychological phases of the esthetic.

**A PREFACE TO MORALS.** By Walter Lippmann. Macmillan Co., New York, 1929, pp. viii+348. Mr. Lippmann repudiates the religion "of the fathers," substituting for it a religion of humanism, and then attempts to create a new system of so-called morals as the guiding star for all orthodox religionless humanists.

**LEARNING AND LEADERSHIP.** By ALFRED ZIMMERN. Oxford University Press, 1928, pp. 111. The author contends that there is enough good will in the world but not enough world knowledge. People are too local-minded. They don't know how the other half lives, even on their own street, not to mention other countries. There is not enough knowledge available concerning public affairs, and mankind is no longer master of its own destiny. The author carefully outlines a program of international intellectual cooperation, which involves promoting a unity in the world of thought itself. Specialization and commercialization are powerful enemies of a unity of world thinking.

**RELIGION IN HUMAN AFFAIRS.** By CLIFFORD KIRKPATRICK. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., London, 1929, pp. xiii+530. Without mincing matters, the author plunges into a coldly scientific, analytical treatment of the history and sources of religion. Religion as a conservative factor in the social order, the contest between religion and science, and a restatement of religion in an age of science are major themes. Strong reaction is expressed against Professor Ellwood's interpretations of the correlations of religion and science. Culture inertia is the chief leg given by Mr. Kirkpatrick to religion to stand on.

**LAWS OF PENNSYLVANIA RELATING TO SOCIAL WORK.** By JOHN S. BRADWAY. Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, 1929, pp. 261. A carefully prepared and valuable document has been written by Mr. Bradway. Laws relating to (1) child welfare, (2) welfare and the poor law, (3) crime, (4) decedent's estates, (5) workmen's compensation, (6) rights of married persons, (7) mental patients, (8) public health and safety, and (9) to labor are given.

**NORWEGIAN SAILORS OF THE GREAT LAKES.** By KNUT GJERSET. Norwegian Historical Association, Northfield, Minn., 1928, pp. 211. While the main theme is a history of the role of Norwegians in the Great Lakes transportation, interesting descriptions are given of many picturesque personalities. The ways in which certain culture traits, sea-faring traits, are brought from Norway to this country are emphasized.

**AMERICA CHALLENGED.** By LEWIS F. CARR. Macmillan Co., New York, 1929, pp. 322. Once more the American farmer's predicament receives an able and stirring hearing. The "family farm" is succumbing, and with it is going fundamental values of American life. Practical measures for improvement, such as better management and scientific farming, are urged. Production balanced against consumption needs is advocated.

**STRESEMAN. THE MAN AND THE STATESMAN.** By BARON VON RHEMBAMEN. Translation by Brooks and Herzl. Appleton & Co., New York, 1929, pp. 321. A dignified, careful presentation is made of one of Germany's most scholarly and forceful statesmen. Streseman is presented as an uncompromising, far-seeing, loyal son of Germany and a sympathetic exponent of the viewpoints of the middle classes.

**PROBLEMS OF PEACE.** Third Series. Oxford Univ. Press, 1929, pp. xiv+324. This excellent book of addresses presents authoritative materials on such topics as The Future of the League of Nations, Disarmament, America's Relation to World Peace and The Influence of Public Opinion on Foreign Policy. It is a report of the fifth meeting of the Geneva Institute of International Relations. As such, it is a valuable commentary on world affairs.

**SOCIAL CHANGES IN 1928.** Edited by W. F. OGBURN. Reprinted from the *American Journal of Sociology*, University of Chicago Press, 1929, pp. 124. This collection of research articles is bound to prove exceedingly valuable. It is fortunate to have them reprinted from the *Journal*.

**A SOCIAL INTERPRETATION OF EDUCATION.** By JOSEPH K. HART. Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1929, pp. xx+458. In this critical review of educational procedure, the author contends that "education is the resultant of the whole community's endless impacts upon the growing individual. No school, in a few hours daily, can cure the ills generated by "the deficiencies of the community in which the individual lives the total moments of his life." If a community is disorganized the pupils' education is likely to end in a disorganized personality. Even the modern standardized academic and industrial processes and patterns may be responsible "for turning large numbers of young people into morons." The stupidity of many individuals may be the result of repressive methods which make them feel inferior until they actually become inferior.

**RUSSIAN LITERATURE AND THE JEW.** By JOSHUA KUNITZ. Columbia University Press, 1929, pp. viii+195. This is a new type of study of special value. It is "a sociological inquiry into the nature and origin of literary patterns." Russian literature for several centuries is reviewed and the pictures that the Russian literary writers have given of the Jews are examined. Most of these pictures are distortions due to the experiences of the writers. The latter in turn reflect economic, social, and political conditions. The Russian writers of each period of national history have exhibited definite literary patterns of Jews; these patterns are reflective and distorted images. The author explains the origins of these distorted reflections.

**ESSENTIALS OF CIVILIZATION. A Study in Social Values.** By THOMAS JESSE JONES. Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1929, pp. xxvii+267. The author of the "Sociology of a New York City Block" (twenty-five years ago) describes four essentials of civilization, namely, health and sanitation, material and human environment, homes and heritage, and recreation and education. The treatment is historical; the style, lucid; the point of view, mature but flexible and alert.

**EDUCATION FOR WORLD CITIZENSHIP.** By WILLIAM G. CARR. Stanford University Press, 1929, pp. ix+225. An interesting group of chapters is presented herewith on the recent development, objectives, and problems of world-citizenship as an educational program. Points out how the teaching of geography, history, physical education, and literature may contribute to the training of youth in world-citizenship thinking.

**PERSONALITY AND THE SOCIAL GROUP.** Edited by ERNEST W. BURGESS. University of Chicago Press, 1929, pp. xii+230. The editor and publishers are to be congratulated upon the reprinting of these papers, first given at the American Sociological Society meetings in 1927, already in print in the Proceedings.

**A STUDENT'S DICTIONARY OF PSYCHOLOGICAL TERMS.** By HORACE B. ENGLISH. Antioch Press, Yellow Springs, Ohio, pp. 80. Excellent as is this succinct "dictionary," its expansion is needed. A large number of terms are given but often the explanation is too brief.

**TEACHING HEALTH IN FARGO.** By MAUD A. BROWN. *Commonwealth Fund*, New York, 1929, pp. xiv+142. This report describes the ways and means by which approved child health services were incorporated into the health and school departments of Fargo.

**THE WILDERNESS OF PROSPERITY.** By LeROY E. BOWMAN. Self and Society Booklets, No. 17, Ernest Berm, Ltd., London, 1929, pp. 36. Not capitalism or socialism but cooperative organizations are urged.

**HOW TO ABOLISH THE SLUMS.** By E. D. SIMON, ex-mayor of Manchester. Longmans, Green & Co., New York, 1929, pp. xii+146. The author gives plans for abolishing slums within a generation, for doing away with overcrowding within a reasonable time and,—all at a cost within the power of his country (England). Intensely practical are the suggestions, e.g., more houses of health standards and of low rents, but with the low rents supplemented by enlargement of the present plan of subsidies. For the state to help house the people is no different in principle than for the state to help educate the people. A children's rent allowance is also supported.

**FROM THE SEEN TO THE UNSEEN.** By JOHN H. BESK. Longmans, Green & Co., London, 1929, pp. xi+552. The marvelous swing which this book affords the reader can scarcely be imagined. It portrays some of the insufficiencies of "a merely mechanistic theory of the Universe." It moves step by step from the origins of the simplest forms of life up the vegetable and animal scale; it takes cognizance of the physiological, embryological, psychological, ethical, and religious. It sweeps up to the heights of human life, and essays to describe the moral character of God. It is a masterpiece from the telically evolutionary and theistically religious points of view.

**THE BATTLE OF BEHAVIORISM.** By JOHN B. WATSON and WILLIAM McDUGALL. W. W. Norton & Co., New York, 1929, pp. 96. This small book testifies to a mighty conflict in psychology. It reprints the debate held some years ago in Washington, D. C., between Drs. Watson and McDougall. It records the contest between hormic and mechanistic theories. It is outstanding because of Watson's serious explanations and McDougall's delicious and scintillating wit.

**CHEMISTRY IN MEDICINE.** Edited by JULIUS STIEGLITZ. The Chemical Foundation, Inc., New York, 1928, pp. xxi+757. Mr. and Mrs. Francis P. Garvan are to be highly congratulated for their generous distribution of this scholarly and useful treatise, containing the results of the best research of many specialists dealing with the maintenance of human health.

**TEACHING IN COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY.** By CARTER V. GOOD. Warwick & York, 1929. This is a scholarly and analytical treatment of objectives and standards in higher education, of the curriculum, of the bases of learning of measurement and guidance in university work. The volume is exceptionally well documented. A superior bibliography is given.

**THE SOUL COMES BACK.** By JOSEPH H. COFFIN. Macmillan Co., 1929, pp. 207. In this study by a philosopher, the soul is reinstated in the form of "the self-conscious level of personality," materialism is combated, and spiritual life is made regnant through achievement. The soul is the ongoing of personality.

**WORKING MANUAL OF ORIGINAL SOURCES IN AMERICAN GOVERNMENT.** By MILTON CONOVER. Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1928, pp. ix+167. In this "case system for the study of politics," the author has made a distinct contribution to teaching methods.

**FINANCING EXTRA CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES.** By H. D. MEYER and S. M. EDLEMAN, A. S. Barnes & Co., 1929, pp. xii+132. Discusses helpfully a problem in school administration.

**MY COMMUNITY.** A Workbook in Community Life. By H. C. HILL and D. H. SELLERS. GINN & Co., 1927, pp. 152. Encourages the laboratory method in the study of civics.

**THE MAKING OF THE MODERN MIND.** By JOHN H. RANDALL. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1929, pp. x+653. With remarkable skill the author gives a history of human thought that is encyclopedic. He begins with the historical setting of Western civilization in the early Christian centuries, depicts the new world of the Renaissance, describes the development of thought in the 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries, and closes with resumés of the growing world of today in terms of the rôles being played by science, religion, philosophy, and social idealism. Dynamic, constructive, well-balanced are appropriate epithets for a work whose sweep can be appreciated only by being read and studied.

**THE SCIENCE OF PSYCHOLOGY.** By RAYMOND H. WHEELER. Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1929, pp. xi+556, and 68 illustrations. This book is a striking and useful departure from most works in its field. It presents a modified and reasonable behavior in terms of gestalt psychology. Configurational and organismic principles are used throughout. The volume reverses the usual order and puts a discussion of the nervous system last. The order of treatment is: social behavior, emotional behavior, learning behavior, observational behavior, and the nervous system. Both social logic and pedagogy are kept in mind in this refreshing treatment.

**BLACK AMERICA.** By SCOTT NEARING. Vanguard Press, New York, 1929, pp. 275. Three significant phases of this work are: (1) the wide range of data that are brought together showing how the negroes are oppressed in the United States; (2) the large number of well selected photographs showing the manifold progress which the Negro is making; and (3) the author's contention that the oppression of the Negro will not be overcome save by the development of "a cooperative economic system under working class control."

**THE ATTITUDES OF MOTHERS TOWARD SEX EDUCATION.** By HELEN L. WITMER. University of Minnesota Press, 1929, pp. 122. An important study of opinions, and of behavior in its relation to opinion. Special attention is given to methodology.



## International Notes

ITALY'S NEW MARRIAGE LAWS went into effect on August 8. According to the provisions of the new regulations church marriages are legal and need not be reported by the state as formerly. Intention to marry in the church must be posted at least eight days before marriage and the priest must announce the intentions to marry at least fifteen days before the ceremony is to be performed. During this period anyone may offer objections to the consummation of the marriage. An Associated Press dispatch quotes the following sections of the law: "Matrimony imposes on the parties the reciprocal obligations of cohabitation, fidelity and assistance." "The husband is the head of the family, the wife adopts his civil condition, assumes his name and is obliged to accompany him wherever he believes it best to establish his residence." "The husband has the duty of protecting his wife, of keeping her near him, and of furnishing her with all that is necessary for the needs of life in proportion to his possessions." "The wife ought to contribute to the maintenance of the husband, if he has not sufficient means." In order to be married under these new regulations many couples postponed their weddings; as a result, priests were unusually busy in August performing the ceremonies.

FAMILY ALLOWANCES, according to Paul H. Douglas, have become a common practice in various parts of the world since the war. These allowances are paid over and above the regular wages to workingmen with families. Precedents for the practice were found in the armies and navies during the war. The movement has expressed itself in two general forms: first, payment through equalization funds by private industries; and, second, payment by means of state grants. France has used the first method extensively; some three to four million workingmen have received the additional stipend. Special arrangements have been made to distribute the burden equally over a great number of industries in a way that no discrimination might be shown in the employment of married or unmarried men. Where the workers have been directly assessed, the bachelor has paid

equally with the father of several children in order to remove any danger of discrimination. By the second general method, the state and not the industry pays the allowances. This method is favored above the first by the British Independent Labor Party. It believes that this method prevents, in large part, the allowances from being added to prices in a way that the laborer must pay for them in the end. Many objections have arisen to the allowances. Chief among these is the contention that they will unduly stimulate the birth rate; but, as yet, there has been no evidence of such results.

MEXICO IS MOVING TOWARD A NEW ERA in the opinion of Robert S. Allen. Progress and hope are found as dominant notes in the nation. The agrarian masses are gradually developing class consciousness. Education has advanced rapidly among them since 1921, and emphasis is being placed upon the learning of a common language. In politics there are rumors of another revolution as the presidential election approaches; but antidotes are seen in the growth of consolidation and conservatism. Neither of the proposed candidates are radical. Pascual Ortiz Rubio, who has the support of the strong governmental party is decidedly conservative.

THE POLITICAL STAGE OF THE WORLD has had an interesting shift of personnel in recent months. The United States chooses a Quaker for president; Britain gets a pacifist prime minister and a labor government; France selects a premier favoring a more liberal policy toward Germany; and Japan ousts her military party and seats a liberal premier and government. Public opinion it would seem is swinging away from the extreme conservatism and militarism of the immediate post-war period, and moving toward more liberal and peaceful policies.

## Editorial Note

The publication of the second and concluding section of the article on "Social Psychology in Germany," by L. H. Ad. Geck, inaugurated in July-August issue of this *Journal*, has been postponed to the November-December issue.

## Social Research Notes

### Periodical Notes

**SOCIAL CHANGES.** The May issue of the *American Journal of Sociology* is devoted to research articles pertaining to recent social changes, particularly the changes which have taken place in 1928. The object of these articles is "to measure and assess the various social changes that are occurring." They deal with such topics as population, communication, group and social organization, rural life, the family, crime, religion, race relations, education, government, labor and social legislation, occupations and various economic topics. Nearly all of the articles have statistical material. The writers aim at a comprehensive treatment which in some cases makes the studies catalogues of facts rather than reasoned statements. There is considerable variation in treatment as well as in topics, but all attempt to make an inventory of the significant trends in cultural and social evolution. The rapid social changes are largely responsible for the present conditions of social disorganization. Knowledge of the varied changes in different fields should help in controlling the social problems created by them. Periodic attempts to state the social changes which are occurring in this country will meet an outstanding need. This is the second time such a survey has been attempted. The writers are largely the same ones who made a similar survey of the previous year. *American Journal of Sociology*, May, 1929, pp. 957-1180.

**SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL WORK.** The major portion of the June issue of *Social Forces* is devoted to the papers and discussions presented at the meetings of the Section on Sociology and Social Work held in Chicago in connection with the last annual session of the American Sociological Society. The four main topics were: (1) "Contributions of General Sociology to Social Work"; (2) "A Sociological View of the Treatment of Domestic Discord"; (3) "The Social Case Work Interview" and (4) "Scientific Prediction and Social Work." The leading papers, presented by Earle E. Eubank, Ernest R. Mowrer, Joanna C. Colcord and Ernest W. Burgess respectively, repre-

sent summaries of research for the most part. Professor Eubank endeavors to utilize sociological concepts in analyzing selected cases. Miss Colcord discusses the processes and techniques used in interviewing. Professor Mowrer analyzed the contents of 2,000 case records of family discord, enumerating some eleven techniques of treatment which are in current use. The most thought provoking paper was presented by Professor Burgess. He projects the thesis that conduct is subject to a degree of prediction, basing his conclusion on the findings of a sociological study of parole records. The object of the original study was to determine the factors which make for success or failure of some 3,000 men paroled from three penal institutions of Illinois. *Social Forces*, June, 1929, pp. 473-563.

**PERSONALITY AND CHARACTER TESTS.** This article is a classified summary for 1928 of personality and character studies. "During the year 1928 there has been a notable increase in experimentation with existing techniques either for purposes of further standardization or as research tools in new researches." One hundred and ninety-nine references are given, which indicates the extent of the output. In addition to the summaries of other studies, the reports are classified under tests and techniques intended primarily to measure objectively certain personality traits and types of behavior; those intended to measure primarily the effective aspects of personality; a group of studies intended to measure attitudes, interests, preferences, prejudices, etc.; another group of studies intended to measure primarily social-ethical ideas and judgments; ratings; experiments involving quantitative studies; observation and record keeping and finally discussion articles. This, as well as previous summaries by the same authors, constitutes a part of the contribution made by them in connection with an Inquiry in Character Education made possible by a grant to Teachers College (Columbia University) from the Institute of Social and Religious Research. Mark A. May, Hugh Hartshorne, and Ruth E. Welty, *Psychological Bulletin*, July, 1929, pp. 418-444.

**A SOCIOLOGICAL CASE STUDY OF A FOSTER CHILD.** The case study presented in this article represents an experiment in the analysis of behavior traits of a foster child in waiting at the Tennessee Children's Home Society, Nashville, Tennessee. The case study is "built around the objective (although qualitative) observations of

the child in the free-play situation." It contains also a "summary of the agency's record, the report of the physical and psychological examinations, the playroom observations, an interview with the supervisor of the children in the agency's receiving home, an interview (such as it is) with the child, an interview with the child's public school teacher, and a concluding sociological analysis of the whole case." But the playroom observations constitute the core of the case study. Students (two at a time) were asked to observe the play movements of the child at five minute intervals and record the observations as objectively as possible without reading interpretations into the behavior of the child. Walter Reckless, *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, June, 1929, pp. 367-384.

**THEORY OF ATTITUDE MEASUREMENT.** A new psycho-physical method for measuring the psychological and functional dissimilarities of attributes is described. The method assumes that if two attributes tend to coexist in the same individual they are functionally similar and if they are more or less mutually exclusive, then they are functionally dissimilar. The degree of similarity is measured in terms of the coefficient, allocating the attributes along a single continuum, and by scale separations on this continuum. This method was used to study the endorsements of 1,500 people to ten statements of opinion about the church, the opinions being allocated to a single continuum with measured scale separations. L. L. Thurstone, *Psychological Review*, May, 1929, pp. 222-241.

### Southern California

The Social Research Society of the University of Southern California met in July to hear Professor George M. Day of Occidental College, who spoke on: "The Russian Refugee Colony of Los Angeles: A Study in Culture Conflict, with special reference to the changing economic, social, occupational, and religious status of the members." Professor Day's special qualifications for making this study include a reading and speaking knowledge of the Russian language, eight years of social service experience and student life in Russia from 1909 to 1917, and two years of service among Russian students on the Pacific Coast as Secretary of the Committee on Friendly Relations among Foreign Students.

The group being studied includes 1,500 to 2,000 anti-Bolshevik political exiles living in Los Angeles. Of these there are two dis-



tinct classes: the older members who are permeated with the old culture traditions, and the younger members, largely students and artists, with a memory of the traditions but not so loyal thereto. The older group is eager to impress their culture upon America and is fearful that their children will lose it; they are homesick and suffer from the refugee complex. The younger group know little and care less for the old Russia. They live more in the present and the future. While influenced somewhat by the older group, they are becoming rapidly assimilated. They are not so affected by the defeatist psychology of their elders.

The study of this culture conflict situation proposes to discover its effect upon the personality of its members, its institutional channels of expression, its effect on the occupational and social attitudes and status of its members, its effect upon the population vitality and mobility, and the general effect of this culture unit upon the total cultural life of Los Angeles. The research approach includes the social research map, the questionnaire, interviews, life histories, participation in the social life of the colony, furnishing occupational aid to their unemployed, and study of English and Russian literary sources.

Tentative problems to be challenged by further study are: (1) Do the following Russian institutions in Los Angeles show a strong tendency to survive: the Russian-American Art Clubs, Orthodox Church, Book Store, Engineers Society and World War Veterans? (2) Is the influence of culture diffusion more active and permanent in Los Angeles than in other American cities? (3) What do the ratings of social distance accorded members of the Russian Colony by both fellow Russians and Americans show? (4) Does the degree of cultural assimilation depend upon the intensity of exposure to the old culture rather than upon age or sex? (5) How great is the tendency toward occupational mobility?

Doctor Ernest W. Burgess was the speaker at the July meeting of the Alpha Kappa Delta Society of the University of Southern California. He chose for his topic, "The Sociological Study of the Family," emphasizing principally the various methods of research which have been employed to study the family. By way of introduction he presented a critical appraisal of the various approaches and techniques employed by Westermarck, Calhoun, Flügel, Bosanquet, and Thomas. Thomas was the first to combine the factors in which the sociologists are interested. He thought of the family as

a cultural organization and a unit of interacting personalities. He used the inductive method of research, utilizing personal documents and other first-hand materials.

Both the statistical and the case study methods have been used to study the family. Those who have used the statistical method have tended to study the family in an atomistic, rather than in an organistic fashion. The case study method gives due recognition to the interplay of interacting personalities and the influences of cultural factors. Professor Mowrer's study of family disorganization represents an attempt to study the family as an organic process.

Future studies will be more comprehensive and systematic. To achieve this end, the sociologist, psychologist, psychiatrist, and social workers must cooperate. Each group has developed a different approach and method which if combined will greatly facilitate future research. Child study institutions, child guidance clinics and family consultation centers represent important laboratories for the study of the family. The fact that the Yale Institute of Human Relations has selected the family as the first problem for laboratory study not only places an emphasis on the importance of the family as a unit of study, but is indicative of a more comprehensive approach.

### Wisconsin

Hitherto at the University of Wisconsin sociology has been joined with economics in one Department. Now, however, the Department of Sociology and Anthropology has been created and all the work in sociology at the University will be coordinated. The teaching and research in rural sociology has been in the Department of Economics in the College of Agriculture. Other phases of sociology have been in the College of Letters and Science in the University Extension Division. The new Department will unify teaching and research work in sociology throughout the University. At present there are nine persons of professorial rank in sociology at the University of Wisconsin, as well as some instructors and a considerable number of assistants. It is intended to add in the course of the next two or three years a full professor of Social Statistics, an additional professor in Theory, a second man in Anthropology and two new people in Rural Sociology. The research program will be expanded by placing on the staff two or more research assistants. The amount of money to be devoted to research in sociology has been increased this year and will be added to as rapidly as possible.

## Social Fiction and Drama Notes

ALL QUIET ON THE WESTERN FRONT. By ERICH MARIA REMARQUE. Little, Brown and Company, Boston, 1929, pp. 291.

The war stories are getting better and better. This latest one is a superior realistic tale, at all times stirring, and written throughout with splendid restraint and fine emphasis. In the narrative one gets the pulse of the German soldier of the younger generation, perhaps a pulse not so markedly different from that of the youthful enemy brotherhood—which is to say, that the human mechanism reacts to certain situations in rather well-defined ways. One of the significant things delineated is the response of youth to a war brought on by the sinister machinations of older generations. "The idea of authority which they represented was associated in our minds with a greater insight and a manlier wisdom. But the first death we saw shattered this belief. . . . They surpassed us only in phrases and cleverness." And again this significant forecast: "What would our fathers do if we suddenly stood up and came before them and professed our account? What do they expect of us if a time ever comes when the war is over? Through the years our business has been killing;—it was our first calling in life. Our knowledge of life is limited to death. What will happen afterwards? And what shall come out of us?"

How well defined and sharply described is the attitude of the young soldier in the following: "With our young, awakened eyes we saw that the classical conception of the Fatherland held by our teachers resolved itself here into a renunciation of personality such as one would not ask of the meanest servant—salutes, springing to attention, parade-marches, presenting arms, right wheel, left wheel, clicking the heels, insults, and a thousand pettifogging details. We had fancied our task would be different, only to find that we were to be trained for heroism as though we were circus-ponies." Splendid and powerful description, this!

I like, too, Kropp's method for the future settlement of international wars denied arbitration: ". . . that a declaration of war should be a kind of popular festival with entrance-tickets, and bands,

like a bull fight. Then in the arena the ministers and generals of the two countries, dressed in bathing-drawers and armed with clubs, can have it out among themselves. Whoever survives, his country wins. That would be much simpler and more just than this arrangement, where the wrong people do the fighting."

The picture of a cruel and malicious warfare is sustained in many sordid scenes, told with a kind of pathetic insight of the whole philosophy of destructive conflict. "War is a cause of death, like influenza and dysentery. The deaths are merely more frequent, more varied and terrible." The novel might well be chosen as the catechism for the jingoist to digest.

M. J. V.

**GODS OF THE LIGHTNING.** By MAXWELL ANDERSON and HAROLD HICKERSON. Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1928, pp. 106.

Inspired by the rôle of justice as played in the Sacco-Vanzetti case, the authors of *Gods of the Lightning* have turned out a powerful and boldly realistic drama in many respects. The play focusses a savage light upon an American court of justice; a light which reveals the tragic sordidness of politicians who trample ruthlessly upon the Bill of Rights. One certainly hopes that there are not many in our judicial life of the kidney of the judge and the district attorney in this play, and that, if there are, they may be dealt with in no uncertain terms. Food for debate is presented here—who are the worst enemies of a government, corrupt leaders of a state or misguided radicals? I believe that a stronger case for the authors' thesis might have been made if there had not been such angry invective utilized against the United States government as such, but made rather against its ill-usage by its misleaders. Still another point might have been scored if well-balanced contrasts had been drawn. The character sketches of the three radicals, Suvorin, Macready and Capraro are masterfully accomplished, while that of the opposing character, the district attorney, all but fails to impress. He might have been developed as a fiery zealot working strenuously for the retention of the present order. There is little doubt, however, that as a drama of social protest, *Gods of the Lightning* will find a permanent place—which means of course that it will never become a popular play, nor will it become a best-seller for the reading public. Perhaps this is unfortunate because the play contains much that ought to be constantly before us if we desire to have politically clean commonwealths.

M. J. V.